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ABSTRACT

These curriculum materials in U.S. history are part of a series designed to teach critical thinking skills systematically. The teacher's guide presents a series of supplementary ready-to-use lesson plans for teaching high school students about the Spanish-American War, the Depression era, the cold war, and post-World War II issues. The introduction presents a rationale for the "history and logic" project (HAL) and points out differences between the HAL approach to critical thinking and the inquiry method. The introduction is followed by a guide to critical thinking, which offers an explanation of types of arguments in history, examples of fallacies, a checklist for evaluating evidence, a method for analyzing value positions, ways of identifying assumptions, and models for analyzing arguments. Other methodologies include problem worksheets, debate topics, and analyses of interpretations in which students are presented with rival interpretations of historical events, rewritten at a high school vocabulary level. The teacher's guide includes a rationale for the program, detailed lesson plans keyed to student booklets, answer keys, test questions, a chart of critical thinking skills taught in each lesson, and difficulty-level coding. A separate section (the source "envelope") contains an outline of the guide to critical thinking skills, a unit on the Bermuda Triangle, introductory worksheets, extra problems, and test questions. The student booklet contains supplementary lessons keyed to lesson plans in the teacher's guide. Lesson topics include: the Spanish-American War and China; the Yellow Press; American imperialism; World War I; Lusitania; U.S. entry into World War I; the Sacco and Vanzetti case; the 1920's; causes of the Great Depression; proposals for the New Deal; the New Deal and recovery; the atomic bombing of Japan; origins of the cold war; the Cuban missile crisis; the Vietnam War; McCarthyism; black mobility; "Brown v. the Board of Education"; President Eisenhower; pollution and energy; and women in the work force. (LH)

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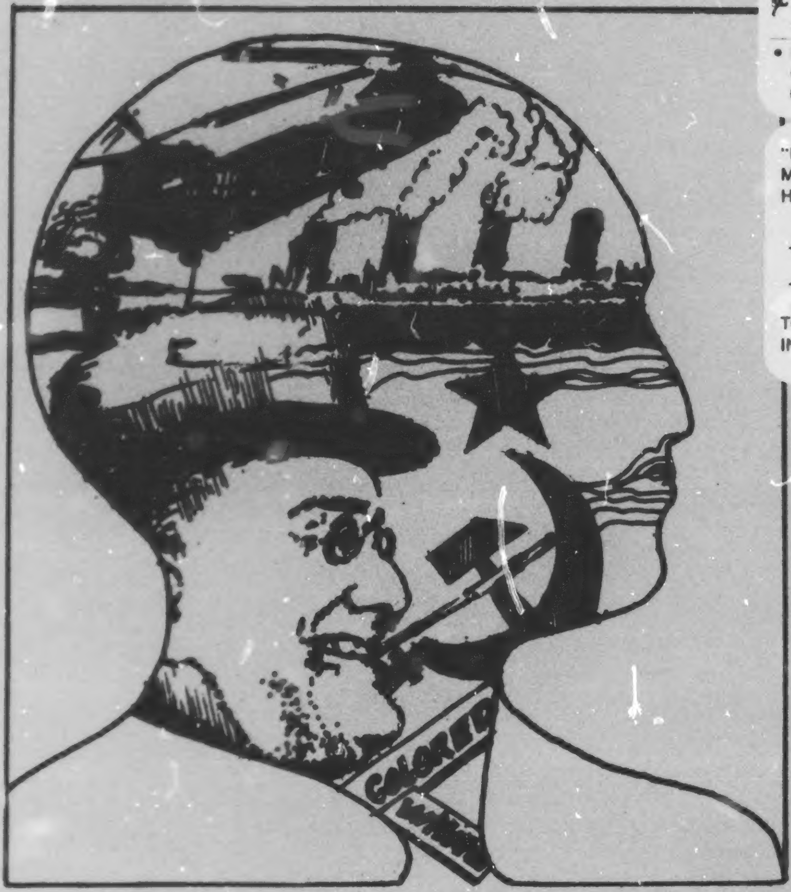

SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR TO VIETNAM

BOOKLET 4

Critical Thinking
In
American History

TEACHER'S GUIDE

SO 016 573

Critical Thinking
in American History

TEACHER'S GUIDE

Booklet #4

Spanish-American War to Vietnam

by

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Robert Swartz on reasoning and fallacies.

Ron Lovett for his suggestions on some lessons.

For Mom and Dad and

Helen and Charlie

Note on Source Materials Envelope

Some of the materials to be used in this unit to develop critical thinking are found in the separate source materials envelope. You may copy these materials for classroom use. The following handouts are contained in the source materials envelope:

1. Outline of the Guide to Critical Thinking
2. Introductory Worksheets
3. Remedial Problems
4. Worksheets and Handouts for the Various Lessons
5. Test Questions

Teacher's Guide Booklet 4

Spanish-American War to Vietnam

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Teacher's Guide Booklet 4

Spanish-American War to Vietnam

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INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Project on History and Logic

The Project on History and Logic (HAL) is a set of curriculum materials in U.S. History designed to improve students' critical thinking abilities through a series of problem worksheets and rival viewpoints on historical topics. The materials are meant to be a supplement to the regular U.S. History course, rather than a course in itself.

It is important to understand that the Project does not aim to develop thinking skills in general, but rather critical thinking skills. These materials are not intended to directly teach classifying information, doing research, map skills, study skills, and so forth. Through these materials students will learn to be more skeptical , analytical, and thoughtful of what they read and hear. As is explained in more detail further on, the main methodology used to develop these critical thinking skills is the examination and evaluation of opposing viewpoints.

We believe the examination of rival interpretations in history is exciting and we feel that when students learn how to analyze these interpretations that they will find history to be much more interesting.

The Project was written for and has been used in high school courses. The materials, however, could be adapted for use in junior high school and college undergraduate courses.

The HAL materials were written based on the assumptions that:

1. Students learn better when confronted with problems rather than when they are told information.
2. Curriculum materials should be as interesting as possible given other educational goals.
3. A variety of presentations and methodologies will better keep student interest high.
4. Students improve at skills through repetition.
5. Students learn skills better when the skills are presented in a deliberate, systematic way.

The HAL Project is not the inquiry method of the 1960's.
The inquiry method put students in difficult situations with documents containing vocabulary they couldn't understand and asked them to reach some conclusions. Moreover, the teachers had little idea of how to use the materials. The HAL Project gives students problems that they can solve, written at a high school vocabulary level, and provides lesson plans and answer keys for teachers. The approach and types of problems in HAL are also radically different from the inquiry method. The differences between the two approaches are discussed further in the rationale section of the teacher's guide.

Who Can Use These Materials?

We believe that any teacher who is interested in having his/her students think better can use the materials. There are lesson plans, answer keys, and guidelines for teachers. The materials are in a format to be used in a classroom without any further work or research by the teacher. On the other hand, teachers who want to adapt the materials to their own styles will have no problem. The HAL materials should stimulate some teachers with ideas of their own for critical thinking.

The only other requirement to use the materials is a tolerance for ambiguity and a willingness to suspend judgment. History abounds with examples of topics about which there is not a clearly right interpretation. Both teachers and students need to accept that fact. Occasionally, there will be some student answers about which you are not sure. Suggestions 8 and 9 in the section, "Suggestions for Using HAL Materials" deals with this eventuality. The "Troubleshooting" section of the lesson plans deals with it also. If you can accept some ambiguity in student answers, then you can handle this issue.

Rationale

"Schools are not developing in students adequate thinking skills or the ability to interpret what is read beyond a superficial level."

National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1981

A. Introduction

The basis for a democracy is an educated electorate which can think for itself. The assumption that people can think for themselves when they mature or become adults is belied by examples from history such as Adolf Hitler and the Nazis and Jim Jones and his mass suicide at Jonestown. How could adults have been so completely misled? Certainly, a little healthy skepticism could have been helpful to those people. In the U.S. today citizens face complex political social and economic questions. These questions demand clear thinking for intelligent answers. Voters have to be able to evaluate various arguments and decide for themselves what they think.

The Project on History and Logic (HAL) was written with the primary objective to improve students' critical thinking skills involved with evaluating arguments. The Project uses the definition by Robert Ennis that "critical thinking is the reasonable assessment of statements." This simple definition includes a wide variety of skills, however. It is these skills that the Project helps students develop. When students are then confronted with arguments, they have the skills and equally important, the confidence needed to evaluate the arguments.

The HAL Project does not claim to be able to improve students' critical thinking abilities in all areas. Rather it claims to improve students' critical thinking about history and, beyond that, about those topics which are most closely associated with history. Many of our present day issues are related to historical precedents or involve arguments using reasoning similar to historical reasoning.

While courses in critical thinking in general seem appealing, some research indicates that they are not very effective. We feel that it is better to teach critical thinking within the regular coursework. We believe it is better to teach students the types of reasoning used within a specific discipline. That is what we have done in the HAL program.

Having been taught using the HAL materials, a student should, upon being confronted with an historical article, be able to not only tell whether he/she agrees or disagrees with the argument but also give very specific reasons why he/she should be able to:

1. Give the main point of the reading.
2. Identify any assumptions made by the author.
3. Recognize value words, vague terms, or emotional language.
4. Evaluate the reasoning used in the argument.
5. Evaluate evidence presented to support the argument.

B. HAL is Not the Inquiry Method

The focus, then, of the Project is on the evaluation of historical interpretations. This makes it fundamentally different from the inquiry method of the 1960's. The inquiry approach in U.S. History gave students a short introduction to a topic and then a series of primary sources on the topic. The objectives were to get students to identify a problem, classify the information, form hypotheses and test them, and make generalizations based on the documents. The approach was:

Student -------------> Reads primary sources ---------->Makes generalizations

The HAL Project, by contrast, gives students secondary interpretations first and then gives them some primary sources to help evaluate the interpretations. The objectives are to get students to analyze existing generalizations, to test generalizations against evidence, and to modify those generalizations. The approach is:

Student -------->Reads generalizations --->Uses primary sources to test generalizations.

The problem with the inquiry method was the students had little interest in and no basis to judge the primary evidence. With the HAL method, the students see arguments about, and often make their own arguments about, the topic before they see the primary sources. Thus, the students have a reason to examine the evidence and context within which to judge it. The HAL approach is also much more similar to the approach that historians actually use. Historians usually approach their research with a good idea of what other historians have said (generalizations) on the subject before they examine primary sources. It seems unfair to expect high school students to do something which even historians are not expected to do.

Another problem with primary sources is that they are difficult to read. The vocabulary level is often too high for many students and the sentences may not be interesting or readable. The HAL Project does not overwhelm the student with too many documents, but rather gives enough documents to help the student evaluate arguments and to help students learn how to use and assess historical evidence.

C. HAL and Historiography (Rival Viewpoints)

The evaluation of rival historical interpretations has been tried in curriculum materials such as the Problems in American Civilization series (Amherst series). There are at least three weaknesses in materials such as the Amherst series which the Project on History and Logic overcomes.

1. The Amherst materials are written at a vocabulary level which is too difficult for most high school students. We have used these materials in both public and private schools and find that most students (except in advanced placement courses) cannot understand them without a great deal of explanation from the teacher. If one's goal is to improve

students' critical thinking skills, they're inadequate. The teacher has to spend too much time on vocabulary and explaining what the views mean. After all, historians write their interpretations for other historians and adults, not for high school students. The interpretations in the History and Logic Project are summaries of views rewritten at a high school vocabulary level. This allows more class time to be devoted to the evaluation of the views.

2. The Amherst materials have no lessons to improve critical thinking skills or models of how to analyze what one reads. Without the skills students cannot interpret what they read. We wouldn't think of giving students calculus problems to solve without training them in algebra and the other necessary mathematics skills. Yet, we give them historical interpretations on complex social/political issues without any practice in the necessary skills.

   The Project on History and Logic is specifically designed to train students in the critical thinking skills necessary to analyze and evaluate what they read. For example, before a student in this Project is required to identify underlying assumptions in an historical interpretation, he would have done several worksheets on finding assumptions. The Guide to Critical Thinking also gives students a model of how to analyze an interpretation.

3. The Amherst materials don't provide evidence for students to use to evaluate the interpretations. The booklets do include evidence, but it is not the evidence that the historians who wrote the secondary interpretations used to arrive at their conclusions. For example, in the booklet The Meaning of Jacksonian Democracy, there is a reading from The Age of Jackson by Arthur Schlesinger, Jr. But, there are no documents that Schlesinger used to reach his conclusions. How can a student really evaluate this view without seeing Schlesinger's evidence? To be sure, there are primary sources in the booklet, but they are not the ones the students need to see--they are just sources on Jacksonian Democracy.

   In order to include the right evidence, someone would have to look up the evidence which the historian cites in his footnotes and put those on handouts for students to use. We have done this in some units in the Project on History and Logic.

D. HAL and Bloom's Taxonomy

Benjamin Bloom and others wrote in their book on the taxonomy of the cognitive domain that there are six levels of thinking in ascending order of difficulty.

The levels of thinking and their characteristics are:

1. Knowledge - Memorizing information.
2. Comprehension - Understanding information. Being able to express it in one's own words.
3. Application - Applying information to a new situation.
4. Analysis - Breaking something down and examining the parts of it in social studies.
5. Synthesis - Putting complex information together in a new and creative way.
6. Evaluation - Judging something against internal standards (such as consistency) and external standards (such as the standards of excellence in the discipline).

These are oversimplified descriptions of complex levels of thinking. For more information on them, see Benjamin S. Bloom (Ed.), Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1956).

A lot of history courses spend most or all of their time on levels 1 (knowledge) and 2 (comprehension). The HAL Project is designed to develop skills at levels 4 (analysis) and 6 (evaluation). In fact, many of the skills listed in the chart in the teacher's guide come directly from skills listed by Bloom under these two levels of thinking.

BLOOM - ANALYSIS

Analysis of Elements:

The ability to recognize unstated assumptions.

Skill in distinguishing facts from hypotheses.

The ability to distinguish factual from normative statements.

Skill in identifying motives and in discriminating between mechanisms of behavior with reference to individuals and groups.

Ability to distinguish a conclusion from statements which support it.

Analysis of Relationships:

Ability to recognize what particulars are relevant to the validation of a judgment.

Ability to recognize which facts or assumptions are essential to a main thesis or to the argument in support of that thesis.

Ability to check the consistency of hypotheses with given information and assumptions.

Ability to distinguish cause-and-effect relationships from other sequential relationships.

Ability to analyze the relations of statements in an argument, to distinguish relevant from irrelevant statements.

Ability to detect logical fallacies in arguments.

Ability to recognize the causal relations and the important and unimportant details in an historical account.

Analysis of Organizational Principles:

Ability to infer an author's concept of science, philosophy, history, or of his art as exemplified in his practice.

Ability to see the techniques used in persuasive materials, such as advertising, propaganda, etc.

Ability to recognize the point of view or bias of a writer in an historical account.

BLOOM - EVALUATION

Evaluation by Internal Evidence:

Judging by internal standards, the ability to assess general probability of accuracy in reporting facts from the care given to exactness of statement, documentation, proof, etc.

The ability to apply given criteria (based on internal standards) to the judgment of the work.

The ability to indicate logical fallacies in arguments.

Evaluation by External Criteria:

Judging by external standards, the ability to compare a work with the highest known standards in its field--especially with other works of recognized excellence.

Skills in recognizing and weighing values involved in alternative courses of action.

The ability to distinguish between technical terminology which adds precision to a text by permitting more appropriate definition of terms, and that which merely replaces a common name by an esoteric one.

Summary of Methodologies Used in the Project

As was stated previously, the Project on History and Logic is a set of curriculum materials in U.S. History designed to systematically teach critical thinking skills at the higher levels of Bloom's taxonomy of the cognitive domain. The skills are listed in the section "HAL and Bloom's Taxonomy" and in the chart for each unit booklet. The Project uses a variety of methodologies to develop the critical thinking skills:

1. Guide to Critical Thinking - The Guide is a booklet on how to analyze and evaluate arguments. It includes an explanation of types of arguments in history, examples of fallacies, a checklist for evaluating evidence, a method for analyzing value positions, ways of identifying assumptions, and other information on logic and arguments. It also contains a simple, five-letter acronym as a model for analyzing arguments. The Guide serves as a reference book for the U.S. History course. Students need to refer to it often to answer the questions on the worksheets and to analyze the interpretations.

2. Problem worksheets - These sheets use short history (sometimes along with everyday) arguments to develop the critical thinking subskills. Some sheets require students to identify conclusions, fallacies, assumptions, value words, and so forth. Others require students to evaluate evidence, and test hypotheses against given information.

3. Debate and analysis - In several units, students debate topics in both small and large groups. While students are debating, the teacher takes notes. He/she then transcribes portions of the debate onto a ditto, along with questions on logic, and passes them out during the next class for student analysis. These debates are used to get students to examine their own use, or misuse of logic. Several transcriptions of debates are included in the lesson plans.

4. Interpretation analysis - Students are presented with rival interpretations, rewritten at a high school vocabulary level (see the section "HAL and Historiography" for an explanation of why). Armed with an analysis model from the Guide to Critical Thinking and with the skills developed from the logic problem sheets, students have the confidence and ability to evaluate the views.

Levels of Difficulty in the Project

The HAL materials have been written for students ranging from average ability to high honors ability. In the teacher's guide to each unit booklet there is a chart of the lessons and skills. Below each lesson there is a number designating the level of difficulty of that lesson. The number designations correspond to:

Number	Grouping in School for 15 or 16 year olds	Piagetian Cognitive Thinking Level for 15 or 16 year olds
5	Honors or Advanced Placement	Formal Operational
4	Honors	Formal Operational or High Concrete Operational
3	Average or Honors	Concrete or Formal Operational
2	Average to Below Average	Concrete Operational
1	Below Average	Preoperational or Concrete Operational

These are very rough estimates since, for example, research has indicated that many 15 year olds in honors classes are not formal operational. Nevertheless, the designations can be helpful. They can help you avoid choosing a very advanced lesson (#5) for your low average group. The designations would also help you to choose more challenging materials for your students as they progress and improve their thinking skills.

The lessons and problems have the following characteristics:

Formal Operational (Designation Number 4 or 5)	- Longer readings; more difficult vocabulary; more abstract concepts; more variables involved in analysis; more open-ended questions; fewer guidelines in the worksheets.
Concrete Operational (Designation Number 2 or 3)	- Shorter readings; easier vocabulary; fewer abstract concepts (abstract concepts are explained more); limited variables are involved in analysis; more step-by-step questions and guidelines to help analysis; often pairs historical examples with familiar examples in a problem sheet.
Preoperational (Designation Number 1)	- Very short readings; easy vocabulary; very familiar or concrete concepts; multiple choice-type questions; one or two variables; always starts with a familiar example, then goes to a historical example.

How to Use These Materials

The idea of the History and Logic (HAL) materials is for the teacher to use them as a supplement to the regular U.S. History course. You do what you would normally have done most of the time. The HAL lessons are intended to be used for less than ½ of the total class time in the course. It is not expected that you will use all of the lessons. In some units you will use only one or two lessons. The amount of class time spent on HAL and which lessons are selected is left up to you.

The teacher can also decide how to use the materials, since there are a variety of methodologies that could be used with each lesson. On the other hand, for those teachers who would like some guidance or suggestions for using the materials, we have provided lesson plans, suggested uses, answer keys, and test questions.

Suggestions for Using HAL Materials

Here are some helpful hints in using the HAL materials:

1. Plan on using HAL for only a portion of the class period. Twenty minutes of class time on HAL problems is often enough for many students. You don't need to touch all the principles in one class. After twenty minutes you may start getting resistance from some students. What you are asking students to do is different from what they have learned about the way to play the game of school. They may be used to memorizing facts to pass tests. However, the time limit varies with the lesson, depending on the interest level. Some of the HAL problems are quite interesting and you may find students will continue working on them even after the bell rings to end the class period (it does happen!). The teacher can decide how well the lesson is being received, and adjust accordingly. But it is a good idea to plan half a class for many HAL lessons.

2. Be careful not to do too many HAL lessons (in consecutive classes). Again, some students may get bored with it, and you'll get some resistance. There are some HAL units which take several classes to teach anyway, so try to space the individual lessons out more. The HAL units are often of very high interest so students don't mind doing a few classes on them, but you can't overdo it.

   To illustrate, example number 1 might lead to some problems for that teacher, while example number 2 would be a better way to space the lessons out:

Example 1:

Day	1	2	3	4	5
Lesson	Regular Lesson	HAL Colonies	HAL Colonies	HAL Colonies	Regular Lesson
Day	6	7	8	9	10
Lesson	HAL Colonies	HAL Salem Witchcraft Unit	HAL Salem	HAL Salem	HAL Revolution

Example 2:

Day	1	2	3	4	5
Lesson	HAL Colonies/ Regular Lesson	Regular Lesson	HAL Colonies	Regular Lesson	HAL Colonies/ Regular Lesson
Day	6	7	8	9	10
Lesson	Regular Lesson	HAL Salem Witchcraft Unit	HAL Salem	HAL Salem	Regular Lesson

3. Don't apologize for doing HAL. Explain the objective of a HAL lesson, as you would for any lesson. But don't bring up a philosophical discussion of why you're doing HAL unless someone asks. You might talk about the overall objectives of the course, one of which is an emphasis on improving thinking skills. What you want to avoid is separating, in the students' minds, the HAL materials from what they consider to be "regular" history. HAL is the real history - it is what real history is all about. Just go ahead and do it, and explain the objective(s) of each lesson as you teach it. The important point is to get students to see that critical thinking (the main objective of HAL) is an integral part of history. You are probably going to get some resistance from some students anyway, but you can avoid some problems by avoiding discussions in class about regular history, fairness, etc.

4. Do not start the HAL program by taking several classes, or even one class to go over the "Guide to Critical Thinking." You can expect many students to fall asleep if you do that. Students will better familiarize themselves with the Guide by using parts of it to help figure out the problem worksheets. For example, when the class gets its first problem on evidence, the teacher could ask how one evaluates evidence. Then the teacher can direct students to turn to the section in the Guide on evidence. Students at this point have a need to learn

this part of the Guide since they have a problem to solve. At some point (we usually do it near the beginning of the course), the teacher does need to explain the basic outline of the Guide, but you should not go over the outline in too much detail. Again, the purpose of the Guide can be explained as one important objective of the regular course without saying that it is excitingly new or radically different.

When you do need to have students learn portions of the Guide, there are several lesson plans (introductory lessons) included for teaching the materials in it. These tend to be a more interesting (and effective) way than straight explanation to learn the information in the Guide.

5. One important consideration in using HAL is to choose the lessons and worksheets which are at the appropriate level of difficulty for your students (See the section "Levels of Difficulty" for more explanation of this aspect of the Project). You can start by turning in the teacher's guide to the chart of lessons and skills. On the chart there are numbers to designate the levels of difficulty of the lessons. These designations are only estimates - you can probably get a better idea by looking over the lessons and judging how they would work with your students. The chart also allows you to individualize the lessons somewhat within a class. You could put class members into groups, and give more difficult problems to the more advanced students.

6. Evaluation of students can be done by test questions, essays, homeworks, and class participation in the discussions of the problem sheets. Grading the homework will force some students to learn the material and skills more effectively and will reward effort. We recommend grading homeworks for completion of the assignment rather than correct answers. There should not be too many HAL questions on the tests. We use a rule of thumb of roughly 10% of the total questions on the test for HAL items. You might consider curving tests on which a large number of HAL questions were answered incorrectly. It has been our experience, however, that the average class scores for the HAL questions has corresponded fairly closely with the overall average class scores on the tests.

7. Group discussions are an important part of the Project, as indicated in the lesson plans. Students can learn a great deal from each other by comparing different answers and explaining why they chose their answers. They can sometimes explain to a student better than the teacher can, why a certain answer is better than another. Group work also helps students to learn to work together and to see that they can learn from each other, rather than just from the teacher. It helps break down the assumption that the teacher is the purveyor of all Truth. This, in turn, helps students to see that they have the responsibility to think and learn information for themselves.

8. Although there are answer keys for the various problem sheets with explanations of why one or more answers is right and why the other answers are wrong, there will inevitably be times when a student will give an answer about which you are not sure. The best thing to do is to ask the student to explain why he/she chose the answer he/she did. If it sounds plausible say that it sounds plausible and tell the student that that was good thinking. Tell the class that this new choice is also a possible right answer, but you might come back to this question in a later class (after you've had time to think about it). Or, you can ask if anyone else in class disagrees with this answer and ask the new student to explain why.

9. Don't spend time arguing with students about the right answer. The overall objective of the HAL materials is to get students to think better, not to spend time arguing with students. When a student gives what appears to be a wrong answer, ask him to explain his answer, and then ask if anyone else can explain what might be wrong with that answer (as explained in #8 above). This takes the spotlight off the teacher and puts it on the students to figure the situation out. The emphasis is more on thinking.

   If the situation is not resolved, you can tell the student what your answer is and that maybe he/she will understand why you chose your answer when the class goes through some more questions. Then move on to the next question. If the student still insists, you might want to talk with him outside of class and give him extra help. There are probably similar problems somewhere else in the unit which the two of you can do together.

   The main thing to avoid is you standing in front of class, arguing for a whole period, about which answer to question number 3 is correct. No one is learning much then.

10. When having the class debate issues, consider having small group (for example 3 against 3) debates sometimes. Small group debates allow (in fact, require) people to participate, and so get more involvement from the class on the issue. Also, consider formal debates (time limits, rebuttals, etc.) sometimes.

Evaluation of the Project

There are four general objectives in the Project about which we have collected data. These evaluation results are not meant to be conclusive, but they do suggest some tentative conclusions about the Project:

Objective	Evaluation Results
1. To make students more skeptical of what they read or hear.	In an experiment on critical analysis, students were shown a filmstrip having an anti-nuclear arms race point of view. Students were read directions to watch the filmstrip and to write their reactions to it. No other clues were given about being critical or about doing analysis. Students were given 11 minutes to write their reactions. An independent scorer was given the criteria for evaluation and the papers mixed so she would not know which were from the experimental group. The results showed that the experimental group (N=13) made almost three times (289%) the number of comments per paper on substance weaknesses in the filmstrip as the control group (N=11), and almost twice (195%) as many total comments per paper on substance in general.
2. To improve students' critical thinking skills.	There is no test which evaluates the skills that are taught in this Project. For evaluation we used the Cornell Critical Thinking Test Level X which tests some similar skills. In one test we received positive results significant at the .05 level of significance. In a second test there was no significant difference between the experimental and control groups. We are presently collecting the results of a third test.
3. To improve students' writing skills	In an experiment on analyzing historical interpretations, the students in the experimental group (N=37) wrote 213 more words on the post test assignment than on the pretest assignment, while the control group (N=10) averaged 115 more words. This is an average difference of 84.5% between the two groups. We have done no test to evaluate qualitative improvement in writing.

Evaluation of the Project (cont'd)

Objective	Evaluation Results
4. To improve student interest in history.	In a survey of three classes, 76% of the students (N=38) stated that they felt the History and Logic curriculum was more interesting than regular history which they've had.
5. To develop students' confidence to think for themselves.	In a survey of a sophomore, honors level U. S. History course (N=38), students overwhelmingly indicated that they felt confident in analyzing three fairly complex interpretations about slavery, and that the previous work with the logic problems sheets seemed to help.

GUIDE TO CRITICAL THINKING

Outline of the Guide to Critical Thinking

Introduction

Arguments are made up of three parts:

1. Evidence
2. Values
3. Logic

I. Evidence

A. There are three sources of evidence;

   1. Statements by witnesses
   2. Documents
   3. Objects

B. In an argument there are three possibilities regarding evidence:

   1. No evidence
   2. Factual information (sourceless evidence)
   3. Evidence

C. When actual evidence is given, it can be judged according to these four factors:

   P - Primary or secondary source?

   R - Reason to distort?

   O - Other evidence supporting this evidence?

   P - Private or public statement?

D. There are other factors as well in judging evidence (see "Guide" for these)

II. Values

A. Values are conditions which the author of an argument believes are good (Money, success).

B. Values in arguments:

   1. Authors' values are revealed through words which make value judgments. Words such as:
      a. Good/bad
      b. Should/should not
      c. Right/wrong
   2. You can examine a value judgment made by an author by: (see the "Guide" for examples)
      a. Separating the argument into the factual and value parts.
      b. Stating the value part in general terms.
      c. Raising specific cases to see if the value is right in all cases.

III. Logic or Reasoning

A. Logic or reasoning is the process of reaching a conclusion on the basis of information or experience.

B. Main points and conclusions:

1. Main points are what the authors of longer (more than one paragraph) arguments are trying to prove, while conclusions are what the authors of shorter (one paragraph or less) arguments are trying to prove.
2. You find the conclusion or main point by:
    - a. Asking yourself, "What is the author trying to convince me of?"
    - b. Looking for the place [illegible] put "Therefore."
3. Cue words:

Conclusions	Premises
therefore	because
hence	for
so	since
thus	suppose that
then	given that
shows that	if
consequently	

C. Words:

1. Watch for value words and vague or undefined words.
2. Fallacies involved with words:
    - a. Jargon
    - b. Equivocation

D. Assumptions and Inferences:

1. An assumption is something which is not stated but which is taken for granted by the author.
2. An inference is a conclusion that goes beyond the evidence upon which it is based.

E. Types of Reasoning Used in History

1. There are five types of reasoning. Most arguments are a combination of several of the types.
2. Types:
    - a. Comparison (Analogy) - compares two cases, and reasons that what is true for one will be true for the other.
    - b. Sample (Generalization) - Reasons that what is true for part of a group (the sample) is true for all or most of that group.
    - c. Cause and Effect - argues that something caused something else.
    - d. Proof - uses evidence or logic (evidence, authority, or eliminating alternatives).
    - e. Debating - refers to another argument on the same topic and shows why this other viewpoint is wrong or partially wrong.

F. Key Questions:

1. These help you judge how good the reasoning is.
2. Key questions:
    a. Comparison: Are the two cases compared similar enough to make the conclusion a good one?
    b. Sample: Is the sample good enough to make the conclusion a good one?
    c. Cause and effect: Does the author really show the connection between the cause and the effect?
    d. Proof: Does the evidence or the argument (like eliminating alternatives) make the conclusion a good one?
    e. Debating: Does the author give good enough reasons for disproving the other argument?

G. Fallacies in History:

1. A fallacy is an error in logic.
2. Fallacies:
    a. Comparison Fallacies - No specific fallacies
    b. Sample Fallacies:
        1. Unrepresentative Sample (or Hasty Generalization)
        2. Stereotyping (or Composition or Division)
        3. Special Pleading
    c. Cause and Effect Fallacies:
        1. Single Cause
        2. Preceding Event as Cause
        3. Correlation as Cause
    d. Proof Fallacies:
        1. Irrelevant Proof
        2. Negative Proof
        3. Numbers
        4. Appeal of Authority
        5. Appeal to the Golden Mean
        6. False scenario
        7. Either-Or
        8. Begging the Question

- e. Debating Fallacies:
    - 1. Attacking the Arguer (Ad Hominem)
    - 2. Straw Man
    - 3. Appeal to Irrelevant Outcome

IV. Models for Analyzing Arguments:

- A. Written arguments - MARKER
    - M - Main point
    - A - Assumptions (and values and value judgments)
    - R - Types of Reasoning
    - K - Key Questions (and fallacies)
    - E - Evidence
    - R - Relevant information (and common sense)
- B. PIPE
    - P - Point of view
    - I - Inferences
    - P - Persuasive techniques
    - E - Evidence

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Explanation of the Guide to Critical Thinking

Introduction

We are using "argument" and "interpretation" as interchangeable. Later we will also use "viewpoint."

We mention the process of analyzing and evaluating an argument. With some classes the teacher might want to mention that this is from Bloom's taxonomy and to explain the six levels of thinking outlined by Bloom (Bloom's taxonomy is explained in another part of the teacher's guide).

The six-letter acronym (MARKER) is intended to be easily remembered by students, so they will be able to use it long after they leave this course.

I. Evidence

The definition of evidence given here is a narrow one. We feel that factual information or examples cannot be verified easily so they cannot usually be evaluated by students. Evidence, on the other hand, can be evaluated, to some extent, without further research. We want to encourage this evaluation of evidence. Note that examples "b" and "c" on reconstruction contain statistics, but in "b" statistics do not constitute evidence.

The factors for evaluating evidence are limited to four (PROP) to make it more easily remembered by students. Also, many, if not most, students aged fourteen to seventeen will be concrete operational. A characteristic of this cognitive stage is the ability to handle four or five variables at most at a time. For students who can handle more variables, other factors are included. This list is still not exhaustive, but it will be helpful for most evidence high school students will encounter.

One important consideration for evaluating evidence which was not included in this section of the "Guide" is whether the evidence actually supports the argument the author is making. This factor is dealt with in the logic section of the "Guide" under proof reasoning. The key question for proof reasoning is "Does the reasoning or evidence presented actually prove the point?"

Use the introductory worksheets on evidence to help students to understand this section.

II. Values

The intent in this section is to show students the importance of the language used in arguments. Value judgments reveal the underlying values of the author. We do not want students to be swayed by emotional language, or the fallacy of appeal to emotion.

As is pointed out in the "Guide," the strategy of bringing up specific cases to test the worthiness of a value position is not intended to "best" the other person, but rather to get both people to examine the value in more depth. Frequently, assertions are made by people which are based on rather simplistic value positions.

It is helpful if people can examine those value positions against the more complex nature of reality. It leads to qualifications of positions, and more importantly, to more thinking.

III. Logic or Reasoning

A. What is logic or reasoning?

The meaning of logic or reasoning which is given in the "Guide" is a simple one. There is no discussion of formal logic, validity, syllogisms, venn diagrams, deductive or inductive logic, or many other aspects of logic in the formal sense of the term. There are several reasons for this. History is not involved with formal logic to any significant extent (conditional logic is one excpetion). Thus, venn diagrams are useless, as far as we can tell, for analyzing historical arguments. Moreover, we do not feel that the assessment of arguments for their validity is helpful for evaluating historical arguments. When we ask students how good an historical argument is, we are asking them how truthful it is, not how valid its form is (we do, however, have students rewrite arguments in premise-premise-conclusion form because this helps them think through arguments better).

We feel that teaching some elements of formal logic would be helpful in some ways to improve students' critical thinking skills. However, these elements would be worth the results. On the other hand, the skills taught in this project are directly related to the subject matter and, we believe, improve students' critical thinking skills significantly with a moderate input of time and effort.

Some teachers may nevertheless want to explain a few aspects of logic to their students, just to clarify for students the different types of thinking. In this vein it might be worthwhile to explain to high level students deductive logic (if the premises are true, and it's a valid argument then the conclusion must be true) and inductive logic (if the premises are true, then the conclusion is probably true) and that history is involved almost entirely with inductive logic. We did not include this explanation in the "Guide" because it confuses some students.

B. Main points and conclusions:

Finding conclusions and main points are the first step in analyzing arguments. The student must know what the author is trying to convince him of first, before he/she goes on to assess whether he/she should believe it.

It is important to point out to students that putting in "therefore" to find the conclusion is not foolproof. Sometimes "therefore" can be put into several places in an argument.

C. Words are not part of the analysis model (MARKER), but they are improtant to several parts of the model. You can put the problem of undefined words and the two word fallacies under proof reasoning in the model, if you want to emphasize language more.

D. Assumptions and Inferences:

The definition of an assumption is much narrower than the meaning given to it by other people. We feel that stated assumptions are just statements which lack evidence or factual information to support them. These types of assumptions are picked up by the evidence section of the "Guide" and the MARKER model. Here we are interested in getting students to identify positions which are unstated because these can sway the reader more easily. So it is the missing major premise and the author's underlying values with which we are concerned. We tried to define carefully in the "Guide" what we mean by assumptions to avoid misunderstanding by students.

E. Types of Reasoning in History:

Four of these categories are fairly easily understood, learned, and identified in arguments. It is the proof type of reasoning which is the hardest to learn and identify because it is the broadest category. You might want to cue students that if they cannot clearly recognize a type of reasoning as one of the other four types, it is probably proof. Enphasize that proof by evidence deals with how evidence is used to prove the point, rather than how good the evidence is (for example, whether it is primary vs. secondary). Does the evidence actually prove the argument the historian is making?

F. Key Questions:

These questions are not explained here. However, there are worksheets to help students better understand the questions.

G. Fallacies:

We emphasize key questions more than fallacies in our analysis model (MARKER), because we feel key questions are easier to remember, promote better thinking, and lead to a better analysis of most arguments in history. There are 18 fallacies listed under this section, but there are only five key questions to remember. Also, since the questions are less specific than the fallacies, they require more generalized thinking to apply them to specific arguments.

The most important benefit of using key questions, however, is that the essential evaluation of most historical arguments does not involve fallacies. Fallacies arise in minor parts of historical arguments but do not usually help us to decide whether or not to accept the main point of the argument. In some cases, historical arguments are riddled with fallacies, but using the key questions would also show these arguments to be weak. We feel that the arguments used for identifying fallacies are often caricatures of creditable arguments.

But, fallacies cannot give us more than a hint as to which argument to believe when we are confronted with rival viewpoints made by reputable historians on many topics in American History. When we read Arthur Schlesinger Jr. and Lee Benson on Jacksonian Democracy, it will not be a knowledge of fallacies which will help us decide which viewpoint is stronger. It will not be that one author commits the fallacy of the misrepresentative sample while the other's sample is fine. Rather, it will be that one author's sample was simply better in some way - it was larger or more representative. It will not be that one author commits the fallacy of post hoc reasoning while the other does not. Rather, it will be that one author will present a more complete explanation of, or have more evidence to show, the connection between the cause and the effect involved in the issue.

For what separates better historical interpretations from weaker ones is degrees of differences: somewhat more similar analogies, generally better samples, rather more complete explanations of the connections between causes and effects, fairly stronger or more important evidence or proof. Fallacies hide these differences in degree. The author either commits the fallacy in question or he/she does not. In a sense, fallacies themselves commit the fallacy of either/or reasoning. It is well to remember that fallacies are names that someone decided to give to some weakness in reasoning which seemed to arise often enough to justify giving it a name (i.e., a category).

The most well known example of fallacies being applied to historical thinking is David Hackett Fischer's Historian's Fallacies: Toward a Logic of Historical Thought. This author lists hundreds of fallacies in historical writing, which are both entertaining and instructive. But the examples are usually one paragraph or less taken from historical articles or books. They do not help us (nor are they intended to) assess the interpretations as a whole.

While we believe that key questions will generally be of more help to students in evaluating intrepretations, we do feel that fallacies are worthwhile as examples of faulty thinking which can help students to find weak spots in some arguments. The fallacies listed in the "Guide" are fallacies that we have found are more common in historical arguments. We tried to keep the list as short as possible, to avoid having students trying to remember too much information.

IV. Models for Analyzing Arguments

A. Written arguments - MARKER:

We tried to keep the model as short as possible. Fewer letters would have been better, but we feel all these letters are necessary to a complete analysis.

For each letter, the student should refer to a specific example from the argument. In the historical interpretations in the booklet, the sentences are numbered to facilitate reference to specific examples.

As was mentioned above, "words" was not included as a letter in the model, but parts of the model require attention by students to the language used in arguments.

The latter R (relevant information) was included in the model to help students to remember to incorporate the relevant information that is included in some of the historical interpretation lessons (the skill of relating data to a hypothesis). Beyond that, this letter in the model is intended to help students to more actively search their own knowledge to assess new interpretations. Sometimes, students could better critique a viewpoint if they would think about what they already know which supports or contradicts the theory. By making this a conscious part of the analysis model, we feel students will do this more readily.

B. Films - PIPE:

Part of critical thinking, especially for today's children, should apply to visual media. The first problem that has to be overcome is that most students do not recognize that there are arguments or points of view in films. The point of the analysis model is to make the student a more active viewer.

There are several films which are recommended as an optional part of lesson plans in the booklets. The analysis model could obviously be used with many other films, however.

Remind students that what they are doing is assessing the arguments or point of view of the film, not the literary aspects of the film.

Using the Guide to Critical Thinking
and the Introductory Lessons

The "Guide to Critical Thinking" (or the "Outline of the Guide" for easier reference) is intended to be used by students as they need it to solve the problem worksheets in the booklets. As mentioned before, we do not think it is a good idea to explain in detail the various parts of the "Guide" to students. Rather, when you choose a lesson that you would like students to deal with, (for example, E-2) you look up the skills involved in that lesson, and go over that section of the "Guide." Then you can have the students do the appropriate introductory lesson to make sure they understand the skill before tackling the problem in the regular unit in history. The emphasis in the introductory lesson plans is on concrete demonstrations and familiar examples to help students who are preoperational or concrete operational to understand these abstract concepts. (see the section "Levels of Difficulty in the Project" for further explanation of Piaget's cognitive stages).

The introductory lessons do not cover every aspect dealt with in the "Guide" but they do cover all the major ones. The introductory lessons are on the following topics:

IN-1	Bermuda Triangle. Introductory reading for overview and motivation
IN-2	Identifying evidence
IN-3A	Identifying and evaluating evidence
IN-3B	Identifying and evaluating evidence
IN-3C	Evaluating evidence
IN-4	Values
IN-5	Conclusions
IN-6	Assumptions
IN-7	Types of reasoning
IN-8	Key questions. This is meant to help students evaluate the reasoning used in arguments.
IN-9	Fallacies

For IN-3A, 3B, and 3C you can select the demonstration (3A or 3B) that you prefer. Then, if you'd like, you can follow the demonstration up with the worksheet on evidence (3C).

When you have students refer back to the "Guide" to do the worksheets, have them look at the "Outline of the Guide" for easier reference.

INTRODUCTORY LESSONS

IN-1 Lesson Plan
The Bermuda Triangle

The main objective of this sheet is to help students to see that they shouldn't believe everything they read or hear - that some arguments are not as strong as they appear at first. It is intended to help students to be more skeptical.

One way to use the sheet is to have students read it and ask them to write down their reaction to it. When everyone has written something, then ask the students what they think about the reading. After quite a few opinions are expressed have them read the relevant information and write their reaction again. Then ask them what they learned from the lesson.

You could also use the reading for developing a number of other skills such as: finding the main point, identifying value and emotional words, locating assumptions and fallacies and evaluating evidence.

IN-2 Answer Key - Evidence

1. (Historian A) - A

2. (Historian B) - C - "said" = statements by witnesses.

3. (Historian C) - B - statistics which might be verified, but we don't have the source.

4. (Historian D) - B - This is worth discussing. While no source is given, it could easily be checked which makes it more reliable. In fact, it is probably more reliable than some factual information which does include the source. On the other hand, without the source we cannot tell more specifically what the convictions were for.

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IN-3A Lesson Plan
Evidence

Payment for Candy

Have five students go out into the hallway. Instruct students #1, 2, and 3 to stay near your door, student #4 to go 10 feet away and watch the three students near the door, and student #5 to go 10 feet in the other direction and watch the three students. Prearrange with two of the students near the door that they are to engage in a transaction. Student #1 gives Student #2 an eraser (representing a piece of candy), Student #2 gives Student #1 a piece of chalk (representing a quarter) for it. Then the Student #1 will claim that Student #2 never paid him/her; and the two will argue about it.

Bring in the five students and tell the class that an event has just taken place and that they have to figure out what happened and who is telling the truth by asking questions. When questions about the candy and money are asked, you can explain that the eraser is the candy and the chalk is the money. Tell all the participating students that they have to tell the truth about what they saw or did, except for Student #1 who can lie about the payment. Also all the students should only answer the questions which are asked.

After the class has asked questions of the participants the teacher can ask:

1. Which was a statement by a witness ?
2. Which was a written document ?
3. Which was an object ?
4. Look at your "Guide to Critical Thinking." How good was the statement or testimony by murderer, witnesses, etc.? How good was the eraser (candy) or chalk (quarter) as evidence ?

Tell the students that what they have just done by asking questions is partly what historians do. Have them look at the worksheet on evidence, IN-3C.

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IN-3B Lesson Plan
Evidence

MOCK MURDER IN THE HALLWAY:

Have five students go out in the hallway. Instruct three students to stay near your door, one student go 25 feet away in one direction and watch the three students near your door, and the other student go 25 feet in the other direction and watch the three students. One of the three students gets a squirt gun. Instruct him that when he is ready he is to take out the toy gun and pretend to kill one of the other students by yelling "bang!"

Bring in the five students - one is "dead" - and tell the class that they have just heard an event. They are to investigate it by asking questions of the participants. (Tell the participants beforehand that they should tell the truth, except for the murderer).

The teacher can then ask the class questions about the investigation:

1. Which was a statement by a witness?
2. Which was a document?
3. Which was an object?
4. Look at your Guide to Critical Thinking. How good was the statement or testimony by murderer, witnesses, etc. ? How good was the gun as evidence? Suppose you found only the murderer's fingerprints on it?

OR

The teacher can be the prosecuting attorney presenting the case to convict the murderer. He can ask questions of the witnesses, produce the gun with fingerprints of the murderer on it, and produce a letter (just fake it) showing that the murderer didn't like the victim. Then you can ask the above questions.

Tell the students that what they, as investigators, have just done is what historians do. Have them look at the attached handouts.

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IN-3C Answer Key
Evidence

You are now a historian trying to figure out who stabbed John Jones in the corridor at Hamilton-Wenham, but in 1940, not today. As a historian, you have the following pieces of information (evidence):

A. There was an investigation by police into the alleged murder of John Jones.

1. The police concluded that he was murdered by stab wounds.
2. The police had three suspects: 1. Clarence Kelly, 2. Slim Stowell, and 3. Luke Levin. All three were in the corridor within 10 feet of John Jones when he was murdered.
3. The police felt they had enough evidence to prosecute Luke Levin.

B. There was a trial of Luke Levin for the alleged murder of John Jones. In the trial:

4. Luke's girlfriend said he was a good person and he never would kill anyone.
5. A teacher testified he opened the door of his room and entered the corridor as soon as he heard John Jones scream. No one could have moved, and no one was moving when he looked into the corridor. John was lying on the floor while Luke, Clarence, and Slim were standing within 10 feet, looking at him. Luke was closest to John.
6. Clarence testified that he didn't do it, but he was looking the other way so he doesn't know whether Luke or Slim did it.
7. Slim testified that he didn't do it, that Luke did it.
8. Luke testified that he didn't do it, that Slim did it.
9. Witness A, who didn't know any of the men, said he heard John say "No, Luke, no" right before the murder.
10. Witness B, who was 35 feet away and who didn't know any of the men, said he saw Luke stab John.
11. The knife was shown to have Luke's fingerprints on it, and only Luke's.
12. Both Luke and Slim had knives with them on that day, according to Clarence.
13. The police found a knife on Slim at the scene of the murder, as well as the knife in John. No other weapons were found.

IN-3C Answer Key
Evidence

14. An IOU note was produced at the trial showing that John owed Luke $300, which was due to be paid three days before the murder.

15. Witness C testified that Slim did not like John.

16. Witness D, 50 feet away, testified that she saw Luke stab John.

17. Witness E, in another part of the building, not within sight of the murder scene, says he's sure Luke killed John.

18. A letter was presented at the trial, by Luke's girlfriend, to her mother in which she says Luke hated John.

C. The jury found Luke guilty of murder.

1. As a historian, do you think the jury was right in its verdict? Yes. Why? Point out that the question of guilt or innocence in a trial is different from the probability of truth in history. In history we do not have to prove something true beyond a shadow of a doubt, as in a court trial, but rather by a preponderance of evidence.
2. Give one example for each type of evidence presented. Just write the number of the evidence on the line:

All others A. Statements by witnesses

18, 14 B. Documents (written information)

11, 12 C. Objects

3. Evaluate (judge) the following evidence according to the factors (criteria) given.

Factors	#4	#7	#10	#11	#14	#17	#18
1. Witness has reason to lie?	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Not that we know of	No
2. Public or private statement?	Public	Public	Public	Private	Private	Public	Public
3. Primary or secondary?	Prime?	Prime	Prime	Prime	Prime	Secondary	Prime
4. Other evidence showing the same thing?	#8 (Luke) (very little)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Compare the reliability of evidence #4 and #18.

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IN-4 Lesson Plan
Values

Write on the board:

"Students should not be allowed to go to the bathroom during class because if they do it disrupts class."

1. Make a general value statement:

(Something which disrupts class should not be allowed.)

2. Other examples:

A. "Fire drills disrupt class. Should we not have them?"

B. "If your arm is cut and you might bleed to death, should you be allowed to raise your hand to tell the teacher even though it disrupts class?"

Discuss: The teacher could qualify the original statement.

Write on the board:

"We should raise the age at which people can drive to 21. That way the number of accidents will be reduced."

1. Make a general value statement:

(Something which reduces accidents should be done.)

2. Other examples:

A. Banning cars, or giving no licenses, will reduce accidents.

B. Making all cars with a maximum speed of 10 mph will reduce accidents.

The teacher could qualify the original statement:

"Since people aged 16-21 cause more accidents, we should raise the age at which people can drive to 21."

Ask for new examples:

("Throwing people aged 16-21 into jail will reduce traffic accidents also. Should we do that?")

Teacher modifies again, etc.

Give students values sheet.

IN-4 Answer Key

WORKSHEET - VALUES

A. 1. Already done for the students.
   2. Point out that the person who made the statement will now have to change it, somehow. "The Indians weren't using it right and they weren't civilized." You (the student) can then attack the new argument.

B. 3. General value statement: When there is no good evidence that someone is guilty of wrongdoing, he should not be punished (ie. hung).

   4. Other examples: (If the students can't come up with any examples, ask them what that tells them.)

C. 5. General value statement: You should always do what earns you the most money.

   6. Other examples: The U. S. could earn more money by selling all our military weapons and factories to Russia. Should we do that?

IN-5 Lesson Plan
Conclusions

Write on the board:

1. "The bell rang. 2. When the bell rings it means class should start.
3. Therefore, we should start class."

Look in your Guide to Critical Thinking. Conclusions are on pages 2-3. Which sentence is the conclusion?

Repeat:

1. "Boys are better at track than girls. 2. So boys track should get more money for equipment than girls track. 3. How can you argue with that?"

(Pick an appropriate one for your classroom.)

1. The sun shines through the window only in the afternoon.
2. The sun is shining through the window.
(Conclusion is unstated in this one.)

Now, try the worksheet on conclusions.

IN-5 ANSWER KEY

WORKSHEET - CONCLUSIONS

1. C ("so" is a cue word for a conclusion)

   Premise - When the bell rings, it's time for lunch.
   Premise - The bell just rang.
   Conclusion - ∴ It is time for lunch.

2. A

   Premise - People on the swim team swim better.
   Premise - Mary is on the swim team and John isn't.
   Conclusion - ∴ Mary is a better swimmer.

3. B ("Since" is a cue word for a premise, which eliminates sentence 1).

4. A (You'll get discussion of this one. It can be set up as:

   Premise - We have a better team.
   Conclusion - ∴ We won.

   OR

   Premise - We won.
   Conclusion - ∴ We have a better team.

   However, the word "because" indicates that that part of the sentence is the premise, so "we won" is the conclusion. The important thing is not so much the right answer as that the students are thinking in trying to find the conclusion. "What is he trying to convince me of?"

5. B What the person is trying to prove is that the best lunches are served on Tuesdays.

IN-6 Lesson Plan
Assumptions

Teacher holds up a brown bag full of something (paperclips) and says:

> "When I pull something out of here it will be a paperclip. What am I assuming is true?" (Only paperclips in the bag.)
>
> "If I leave the bag here for awhile when I return it will still be here. What am I assuming?" (No one will move it.)

Look in your "Guide to Critical Thinking" at the section on assumptions. (Read over the explanation and examples.)

Now try the worksheet on assumptions.

IN-6 ANSWER KEY

WORKSHEET - ASSUMPTIONS

1. C I'll have a head start.
But you run faster than me.
.·. You'll get there first.

2. B Beth is older than Roger.
Roger is older than Marie.
.·. Beth is older than Marie.

3. B

4. Fred works for the Shell Station.
The Shell Station hires only good mechanics. (assumption)
.·. Fred must be a good mechanic.

IN-7 Lesson Plan

Types of Reasoning

A. **Teacher says:** (Evidence or Proof)

1. "Suppose your mother told you that if you mowed the grass you could go out the next night. The next night, after you mowed the grass, when you're getting ready to go, your mother says, 'Where do you think you're going, you can't go out.' What would you say?"
   (But you said I could if I mowed the grass.)

   This is proof reasoning. You bring up something she said earlier to prove you should be able to go out. Suppose she said "You didn't mow the grass." What would you say next? (Look at the grass). What would this be, logic, evidence, or values? (Evidence)

2. "Suppose you are a defense lawyer for Jones and you have five witnesses who will show that Jones didn't commit the crime. Suppose the judge, before the trial asks if there is enough evidence to even try Jones. The prosecutor says there is. The judge asks you how you're going to prove Jones is innocent. What would you say?"
   (I have witnesses who will show that Jones didn't do it.)

   This is also proof reasoning.

3. "Suppose we're trying to find out who threw the ball that broke the glass. Anne and Theresa were the only ones in the room when the ball went through the window. What would you say if you knew Theresa had no arms? (Anne probably threw the ball.)

   This is also proof reasoning.

B. **Teacher says:** (Cause and Effect)

1. Suppose Jenny is very sick to her stomach and is brought to the emergency room. You're the doctor, what are you going to do? (examine her, ask questions). What are you going to ask? (What have you eaten?) What are you trying to find out? (What caused this?) Suppose you found out that Jenny ate a ham sandwich with mayonaise at a picnic which was left out in the sun for eight hours, and that every other person who ate a ham sandwich got sick. What would you conclude? (Sandwiches caused her to be sick.)

   This is cause and effect reasoning.

C. (Sample/Generalization)

Teacher holds up a brown bag full of something (paper clips). He says "when you're ready to make a conclusion, tell me." He starts pulling out paper clips. When someone eventually says something like "It's a bag full of paperclips", write it on the board. "Do you know for sure that this is true? Did you look at everything in here? What did you look at? (A sample) So this is sample reasoning. What we've written on the board is called a generalization. We could have written, 'Most of the items in the bag are paperclips.' Still a generalization.

IN-7 Lesson Plan
Types of Reasoning

Suppose I want to prove this is a bag full of paperclips. I look in the bag each time (maybe there's rubber bands in it, too) and pull out a paperclip. Or suppose I pulled out only two paperclips before we made our conclusion? These are not really fair samples--these are fallacies, the first is special pleading, the second is an unrepresentative sample.

D. Teacher says: (Comparison)

1. "Suppose you drove in an autocross road race in the North Shore Shopping Center Parking Lot a month ago. You drove your 1978 Honda Civic, which was in D Class, and your best time was 31.5 seconds. Now suppose Harry told you that last Sunday he drove in an autocross and his best time was 29.8 seconds, so he's a better driver than you. You can ask him any three questions. What would you ask? (1. What kind of car? 2. What was the best time of day? 3. What class were you in?) What are you trying to get at with your questions? (Show there are differences in the two times.)

   This is comparison or analogy reasoning. It's comparing two events or cases and making an argument from the comparison (Harry's a better driver). What you try to do with comparison arguments is ask questions to see if the cases are similar enough to make you accept the conclusion. Would you agree that Harry's a better driver than you, from this argument? (No)

2. Suppose the teacher gave an assignment from textbook A (hold it up). John got that textbook; which of these three other textbooks should I choose from which to do my assignment (holds up 3 others)? (Textbook B is the same as A) Why should I pick B? (same) How do you know they're the same? (cover the same, look inside). So the argument is: Assignment from A. B same as A. . . .Can do assignment from B. It's comparison (analogy) reasoning.

E. Teacher says: (Debating)

1. Harry said he's a better driver than Joan in autocross because he had a lower time last Sunday. But Harry didn't prove this because he was driving a faster car, in a higher class, and on an easier course. // Actually Joan is a better driver because . . .

   This is a debating argument up to the double line. He's talking about someone else's argument and showing why it is weak. Many, many historians use this style of argument in their articles and books. Notice that this argument is a good one. It is all right to show why your argument is better than another argument with a different point of view.

You might want to review each type of reasoning, as listed in the "Guide". You could summarize each example on the board.

- A. Evidence (Proof) - Mom and going out if you mowed the grass
- B. Cause and effect - Why is Jenny sick? - ham sandwich
- C. Sample (Generalization) - Is it a bag full of paperclips?
- D. Comparison (Analogy) - Harry's a better driver because his time was lower.
- E. Debating - Harry's argument is weak because . . . .

Now have the students do the worksheet on types of reasoning. Discuss the answers. #7 may be difficult, so go over it.

IN-7 ANSWER KEY

WORKSHEET - TYPES OF REASONING

1. D Compares Fred's race with this race. It can also be considered cause and effect reasoning, but it is mainly an analogy.

2. C A sample of all the kids who went to the dance.

3. D Cue word - "like".

4. E Refers to Karen and her argument and attempts to refute it. It attacks Karen's argument by attacking her sample and her evidence (proof).

5. B/D Mainly cause and effect - cue word "reasons" = causes. Proof would be bringing up an argument or evidence to show why (prove) they were causes. Proof also might be eliminating other possible causes. It is also a sampling of the causes.

6. E "Other historians have said . . ." and then tries to refute.

7. A Eliminates other possibilities to prove that Christine bought the refrigerator.

Remind students that many historical arguments are a mixture of several types of reasoning. The purpose of identifying the types is to better know how to evaluate the arguments.

IN-8 Lesson Plan

Key Questions

These problems are intended to help students to understand the difference in arguments according to the Key questions for the five types of reasoning. That is, what constitutes a letter or worse analogy, generalization, cause and effect, proof, or debating argument.

The best way to use these worksheets is to have students turn in their "Guides" to the section on types of reasoning and key questions, go over it with them to refresh their memories and have them do the problems on these worksheets. (Students should already have done IN-7 on types of reasoning for doing this lesson).

IN-8 Answer Key

A. Comparisons:

1. A. Grades in courses in general and specifically in history are important for comparison. Having the same teacher seems an important factor since different teachers count differently.

   In B, intelligence may be important but does not seem as important as past performance in history or as important as having the same teacher.

   In C, knowing as much about history may be important, but again not as important as the other factors.

2. C. In A & B the two races are not the same. In C more factors are shown to be similar, and they are important (such as the temperature).

   Note:

   The right answers to these problems is not the important aspect of them. The main objective of the problems is to instruct the students through example, on what to look for in analogies. Even students who got wrong answers on these problems will learn that analogies which are similar in more significant ways are better than those which are not.

   You could point out to students the cause and effect elements also involved in both problems. In # 1 is it doing the homework plus having a particular teacher plus having a certain optitude for history which caused Harry to get an "A"? In # 2 is the amount of water ingested an important cause in finishing a race?

B. Samples: (Note that the three sample problems introduce three variables in samples: size, representativeness, and time.)

3. D. This is easy, but it may help students to remember that the size of the sample is important.

4. B. B seems best because it is designed to be representative of all the groups in the city. E seems good because it looks random. However, it isn't because some groups may not own telephones (reminding one of the famous telephone poll taken in the 1948 election which predicted that Dewey would win), and because people at work would not be sampled. What may surprise some students is that the size of the sample is not the key factor in this case. The 450 people asked at the country club are not very representative of the city as a whole, even though this is the largest sample. You might tell students that polls taken before presidential elections (which have been accurate) sample only about 1200 to 1500 people, but they are designed to be representative of all ages, occupations, regions, social classes,

IN-8 Answer Key

4. B. (continued)

and so forth.

5. C. C seems best because it samples a broader, span of time. Time is an important variable in historical samples which does not appear as often in samples outside of historical investigation.
Answer A is better in the respect that it covers all the states. However, the broader time span seems more important in this case. You could point out that historians frequently study a smaller part (one state, one county, one ten-year period) of a larger question to test the validity of the larger generalization (i.e. "Slaves had a short life expectancy").

(Note that the explanation of generalizations in the "Guide" and this worksheet do not explain differences in types of generalizations: factual, definitional, hard, soft, collective, and statistical. We recognize that this is a disadvantage, but we felt it would be too confusing to explain all these to students. The idea of the sample will help with most generalizations.

C. Cause and Effect:

6. B. This is the answer which shows the most direct connection between the meat and the sickness. You might want to mention to students that this is also a proof argument. The blood test is evidence (object) to prove the cause.
Answer C is a fairly good correlation, but it doesn't show the connection. Maybe they ate something else or breathed in poison, or had sun stroke which caused the sickness.

7. C. This statement explains to some extent the alliances led from the assassination at Serajevo to War, while the other answers do not. This answer is not a great explanation. For example it doesn't explain why Germany decided to honor her alliance, or why she attacked France. However, it is the best explanation of the three answers.

D. Proof:

(Note: These judge how evidence is used, rather than the evidence itself).

8. D. This best proves the particular conclusion given. Point out to students that this is not the evaluation of the evidence (according to PROP, for example) but rather the assessment. The extent to which the evidence proves the argument the historian makes. This is why each of the answers is the same in terms of evidence itself ("A government study---").

IN-8 Answer Key

9. C. This best proves the point about life expectancies over the entire time span.
You could point out that both of these problems involved samples also.

E. Debating:

10. A. This answer is best because it attacks the basis for John's conclusion. B and D are ad hominem arguments. C offers counterargument which is a good way to debate, but in this case it offers only a different opinion about the most important criteria without supporting this opinion. Answer A is better because it attacks John's argument directly.

IN-9 Lesson Plan and Answer Key

This worksheet is provided so that you can give the students practice in identifying fallacies. As was mentioned previously, we feel that working with key questions is more fruitful for developing critical thinking skills. Also, many of the worksheets in the booklet have questions on fallacies. Still these could be done as a regular class exercise, or given as individual or extra credit work.

1. Hasty generalization.
2. Either/or.
3. Irrelevent proof.
4. Attacking the arguer.
5. Correlation as cause.
6. Hasty generalization.
7. Bad analogy or hasty generalization (oversimplification).
8. Unrepresentative sample.
9. Negative proof.
10. Attacking the arguer.
11. Appeal to authority - rather, misplaced authority.
12. Negative proof.
13. Attacking the arguer.
14. Either/or or false assumption.
15. Special pleading - what about the bad effects? These have to be accounted for in the argument.
16. Negative proof.
17. Irrelevant proof.
18. Post hoc.
19. Either/or.
20. Irrelevant proof.
21. Attacking the arguer.
22. Attacking the arguer or straw man.
23. Hast generalization (oversimplification).
24. Appeal to the golden mean.

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KEYS TO LESSONS

Booklet 4

Overview of Lessons

Unit	Lesson	Summary of Lesson	Level of Lesson	Length of Lesson in Class Periods
World Power	WP-1	Logic Worksheet	3	1/2 - 1
	WP-2	Evaluate Viewpoints	2 - 4	1/2
	WP-3	Analyze Viewpoints	3 - 4	1 - 2
	WP-4	Analyze Viewpoints	4 - 5	1
	WP-5	Logic Worksheet	3	1/2
	WP-6	Analyze Viewpoints	2 - 4	1 - 3
	WP-7	Analyze Viewpoints	3 - 4	1 - 2
Depression Era	DE-1	Debate-Draw Conclusions	1 - 4	1 - 2
	DE-2	Logic Worksheet	3	1/2
	DE-3	Analyze Viewpoints	3 - 5	1 - 3
	DE-4	Compare Proposals.	3 - 4	1
	DE-5	Logic Worksheet	3 - 4	1/2
	DE-6A	Logic Worksheet	2	1/2 - 1
	DE-6B	Logic Worksheet	3 - 4	1/2 - 1
Cold War	CO-1	Analyze Viewpoints	3 - 5	2 - 4
	CO-2	Logic Worksheet	3 - 4	1/2
	CO-3	Analyze Viewpoints	4 - 5	2 - 4
	CO-4	Logic Worksheet	3	1/2
	CO-5	Analyze Viewpoints	3 - 5	2 - 4
Post-World War II Issues	IS-1	Logic Worksheet	2 - 3	1/2
	IS-2	Logic Worksheet	2 - 3	1/2
	IS-3	Evaluate Viewpoints with Graphs	3 - 4	1 - 2
	IS-4	Logic Worksheet	2 - 3	1/2
	IS-5	Logic Worksheet and Graphs	2 - 3	1/2 - 1

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Booklet 4

Spanish-American War to Vietnam

Chart of Skills

Unit⟶		World Power							Depression Era				
Skills	Lesson⟶	WP-1	WP-2	WP-3	WP-4	WP-5	WP-6	WP-7	DE-1	DE-2	DE-3	DE-4	DE-
..	Identifying conclusions	•								•			
2.	Identifying main points of longer arguments			•	•		•	•			•		
3.	Identifying assumptions	•		•	•			•			•		
4.	Identifying types of reasoning	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•		
5.	Evaluating types of reasoning (by key questions)		•	•	•		•	•	•		•		
6.	Identifying evidence used to support an argument		•		•		•		•		•	•	
7.	Evaluating evidence			•	•	•	•	•	•	•			
8.	Identifying information which supports or contradicts an argument	•		•									•
9.	Identifying fallacies in arguments				•	•	•	•		•	•		
0.	Identifying unclear or undefined words	•						•					
1.	Identifying value words	•						•					
2.	Identifying and evaluating value statements						•						
3.	Using analogies in arguing				•		•						
4.	Recognizing fact versus opinion								•				
5.	Recognizing the author's point of view										•	•	
6.	Recognizing the author's view of history											•	
17.	Identifying and evaluating inferences												
18.	Comparing history with other disciplines (science, literature)												
19.	Using MARKER or other model to analyze arguments				•		•	•					
20.	Eval. arguments according to standards of excellence in history										•		
21.	Evaluating films, cartoons or pictures			•					•				

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Booklet 4

Spanish-American War to Vietnam
Chart of Skills

Unit→	Dep.		Cold War					Post-World War II Issues				
Skills / Lesson→	DE-6A	DE-6B	CO-1	CO-2	CO-3	CO-4	CO-5	IS-1	IS-2	IS-3	IS-4	IS-5
1. Identifying conclusions	●			●		●		●	●		●	●
2. Identifying main points of longer arguments		●	●		●		●					
3. Identifying assumptions	●	●	●		●		●	●				
4. Identifying types of reasoning		●	●		●	●	●		●		●	
5. Evaluating types of reasoning (by key questions)	●	●	●		●	●	●					
6. Identifying evidence used to support an argument		●	●		●		●	●			●	
7. Evaluating evidence			●		●		●	●	●			
8. Identifying information which supports or contradicts an argument			●		●		●			●		●
9. Identifying fallacies in arguments	●		●		●	●	●		●		●	●
0. Identifying unclear or undefined words			●		●		●					
11. Identifying value words	●	●	●		●	●	●	●			●	
2. Identifying and evaluating value statements			●	●	●		●					
13. Using analogies in arguing			●	●	●		●					
4. Recognizing fact versus opinion			●									
5. Recognizing the author's point of view	●	●										
16. Recognizing the author's view of history			●									
17. Identifying and evaluating inferences												
18. Comparing history with other disciplines (science, literature)												
19. Using MARKER or other model to analyze arguments			●		●		●					
0. Eval. arguments according to standards of excellence in history												
1. Evaluating films, cartoons or pictures												

Explanation of the Lesson Plans

The lesson plans have been written in a set format.

1. Purpose of the Lesson - explains the objectives of the lesson and the critical thinking skills that are taught.

2. Student Preparation for the Lesson - explains what knowledge or skills students must have or may need in order to do this lesson.

3. Introducing the Lesson - describes how to begin the lesson. The emphasis here is on interest. Often, questions are asked about something which is familiar and interesting to the students. This helps students who are concrete operational or preoperational thinkers to better understand the abstract concepts involved in the lesson. (See the section "Levels of Difficulty in the Project" for further explanation of Piaget's cognitive stages). Then the introductory questions are connected to the topic to be dealt with in the lesson.

4. Lesson Options - explains various ways to use the materials. Option A is usually a fairly complete, step-by-step, explanation of the lesson plan. The other options offer alternatives to particular steps in the lesson plan described in option A.

5. Altering the Lesson - explains what level of student the lesson is aimed at, and how to modify it for either higher or lower ability students. This would also allow teachers to individualize the lesson within a class. Wherever there are A and B designations (such as E-3A and E-3B) the lessons are on the same material. The A lesson is always for lower ability students. Within a heterogeneous class the teacher could use the A lesson for the lower ability students and the B lesson for the higher ability students.

6. Troubleshooting - explains possible problems that might arise and gives ideas for dealing with them.

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REMEDIAL PROBLEMS

E.P. Lesson Plans

Remedial Problems

These problems are intended to be used with students who are having difficulty with a specific skill. The teacher would copy the sheet for that skill and have the student do the worksheet. Then the teacher could go over each answer, explaining points as he/she goes along.

The remedial problem sheets are on the following skills:

	Skill Involved	Difficulty
EP-1	Values	Easy (Below average senior high school students)
EP-2	Conclusions	Easy (Below average)
EP-3	Conclusions	Average (Average senior high school students)
EP-4	Conclusions	Average to Difficult (Above average senior high school students)
EP-5	Undefined words	Average
EP-6	Assumptions	Easy
EP-7	Assumptions	Average
EP-8	Assumptions	Difficult
EP-9	Types of Reasoning	Average to Difficult
EP-10	Fallacies (Stereotyping, Correlation as Cause, Special Pleading, Hasty Generalization)	Average to Difficult
EP-11	Fallacies (Straw man, prevalent proof, either/or, false scenario)	Average to Difficult
EP-12	Fallacies (Equivocation, Either/or, Begging the Question)	Difficult

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EP Remedial Problems

Answer Keys

EP-1 Value Words

1. C
2. B
3. A
4. C
5. A
6. D
7. A
8. C

EP-2 Conclusions

1. D
2. D
3. A
4. C
5. C

EP-3 Conclusions

1. A
2. C
3. A
4. A
5. C
6. A

EP-4 Conclusions

1. D
2. G
3. C
4. D
5. B

EP-5 Undefined Words

1. D
2. C
3. B
4. D
5. D
6. C

EP-6 Assumptions

1. B
2. A
3. C
4. B

EP-7 Assumptions

1. B
2. E
3. B
4. C
5. B

EP-8 Assumptions (Possible answers)

1. Special interest groups are bad.

2. Kennedy's idea was good.

3. Government regulation will improve safety.

4. Safety will be inadequate if there is no government regulation.

5. Monopolies are bad.

EP-1 Types of Reasoning

1. D
2. B
3. B
4. B/D
5. E
6. A
7. C
8. B/A

EP-10 Fallacies

1. C
2. A/D
3. B
4. D/C
5. B/C
6. B
7. D/A
8. C
9. A/D

EP-11 Fallacies

1. B
2. A
3. C
4. E
5. D
6. B
7. B
8. A

EP-12 Fallacies

1. C
2. A ("neutral" is used differently)
3. A
4. A
5. No fallacy-it is not either/or
6. A
7. B
8. D
9. A("help the poor" is used differently)

WORLD POWER

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

A. To help students to break down arguments into their parts.

B. To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 52 of the teacher's guide.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

Students should have done the introductory lessons and worksheets for conclusions, assumptions, and types of reasoning.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

Ask students who decides whether the U. S. will get involved in another country's affairs. Who decides if the U. S. will become involved in a war? These are tricky questions, with many possible reasonable answers. Ask the students who really influences these foreign policy decision-makers. Write the question on the blackboard:

"Who really influences American foreign policy?"

IV. Lesson Options:

A. The teacher could have students pair up and compare their answers, and then the class could discuss the answers.

OR

B. The teacher could write out the answers on the blackboard or on a transparency.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at average senior high school students.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - skip questions 4, 5, and 14. You could also write in the major premise (#2).

C. Making the lesson more challenging - have students read the chapter in their textbooks on the Spanish-American War for homework. Each student is to write out one argument about what caused the War. In class, students are to exchange papers and rewrite the arguments in premise-premise-conclusion form, and discuss their answers.

VI. Troubleshooting:

A. Make sure you don't have students doing problems for which they are not prepared. If you haven't done assumptions with students, skip questions 4 and 14. If you haven't done types of reasoning, skip question 5.

B. Don't spend too long on the lesson. For variety, it's better to spend only half a class on this lesson and then move to something else.

WP-1 AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

ANSWER KEY

A. Yellow press: (one possible answer)

1. Premise: The yellow press influenced many American people about the situation in Cuba in the 1890's.

2. Premise: People are important in foreign policy decisions.

3. Conclusion: Therefore, the yellow press was the main factor in pushing the U. S. into the Spanish-American War.

(Note the cue word "since" for students.)

4. The second premise is the assumption. Point out to students the four steps in identifying assumptions:

   1. State the conclusion.
   2. Write out the stated premise.
   3. Combine the unique part of the premise with the unique part of the conclusion in a single sentence.
   4. State the new sentence in general terms—i.e. "people."

5. B "So many Americans" - how did the historian determine how many were influenced?

   C "main factor in pushing" = main cause.

   Some students may say proof (D) is involved, arguing that the Americans influenced by the paper are used as proof that the papers pushed us into the War. This viewpoint is reasonable. Tell them that the key questions about the yellow press is how many people were influenced (sample question) and whether public opinion had any connection to the decision for war (cause and effect).

B. Meddling in other countries' affairs:

6. A
7. C

8. Done for them.

9. R

10. S

11. R

12. ? You could have an interesting discussion about this question!

C. China weak:

13. A

14. C (B and D are stated.)

15. "Weakest" or "humiliating defeats"

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 52 of the teacher's guide.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

No preparation on specific skills is necessary since students at almost any skill level will be able to decide which view they think is strongest. Students who have an understanding of types of reasoning and key questions may be able to make a more sophisticated analysis, however.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

Have students read the overview and start the lesson.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Have students answer the question in writing and discuss as a class. If the students answer the question for homework, this lesson could be 10-15 minutes long.

B. Same as option A, but have students compare their answers in groups before discussing as a class.

V. Level of the Lesson:

The lesson is aimed at no particular level, being suitable for below-average to well above-average senior high school students. The discussion about which view is best will simply be more sophisticated with more sophisticated students.

VI. Troubleshooting:

A. Make sure that the students understand the factual aspects leading to the War before they read the viewpoints. It is easy to get confused between the revolt in Cuba and the War itself, for example.

B. Students often do not know how to express why they picked one view as stronger than others. In each class, however, there is usually some brave soul who will volunteer an answer. After you give the reasons for your choices in a few lessons, students will improve at how to evaluate arguments and how to verbalize their assessments.

WP-2 ANSWER KEY

Answers will vary. The discussion of how students arrived at their choices should be helpful. The thinking is more important than right or wrong answers. Many students will recognize better thinking.

The best explanation seems to be B. This argument shows that the papers may have distorted the Cuban situation, that the papers influenced millions of Americans, and that this public opinion influenced the decision-makers. In short, it does the best job of connecting the cause (newspapers) to the effect (the decision to go to war). This argument is certainly not strong, since it lacks any evidence for two of its premises, and since the evidence it does present is suspect (might Hearst have exaggerated his role in shaping events?). Historian B's argument is, however, stronger than those of the other two historians.

Historian A gives a good explanation for why the newspapers competed, but fails to explain how many people were influenced, or to show how the people connected to the decision. Historian C gives evidence of alleged newspaper exaggerations, but again does not connect this to the decision for war.

WP-3

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 52 of the teacher's guide.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

Students should have done the introductory lessons or other work on main points, assumptions, types of reasoning, key questions, and evidence.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

A. Ask the students what the causes of the Spanish-American War were. List them on the chalkboard. Then ask the class what role William McKinley played in the declaration of war. Tell them that President McKinley's role in causing the war has been debated by historians.

OR

B. No special introduction; start with the viewpoints.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Have the students read the viewpoints and answer the questions on the worksheets. Have the students discuss their answers in small groups and then discuss as a class.

B. Same as option A, but skip the small group step.

C. Have the students read the two viewpoints and have them evaluate one or both according to MARKER. You can get an idea of some answers from the answer key to the worksheets.

D. Have the students read the two viewpoints and write down which viewpoint is stronger and why. Discuss as a class.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at average to above-average senior high school students.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - have students do only questions 1, 4, 5, 8, and 9 from the worksheet.

C. Making the lesson more challenging - use lesson option C or D. Also you could have students write an essay evaluating the viewpoints.

VI. Troubleshooting:

Some students may have difficulty with evaluating types of reasoning. You might want to do 5a and 7a for the students. Once they see how you evaluate a type of reasoning, they may be better able to do it, also.

WP-3

ANSWER KEY

HISTORIAN A

1. C

2. Unstated assumption in sentences V-VI (one possible answer):

   The expansionists were important advisers to President McKinley - they really influenced the President.

3.

	Type of Reasoning	Key Question	How Well Answered
a. Sentences VIII-X	Primarily Cause and Effect	Is the connection between the cause and the effect shown?	The author does explain that Cuba was dependent upon sugar exports, so some connection is shown.
b. Sentence XIV	Cause and Effect	Is the connection shown?	The connection of the Yellow Press to public opinion in general is not shown, and the connection of public opinion to McKinley's decision for war is weak (footnote 8 is a statement by Lodge - a jingoist-not McKinley).
c. Sentence XVII	Sample	Is the sample large or representative enough?	These were New York City newspapers. Did they affect public opinion all over the country? Some historians have argued that they did. This historian needs to deal with the question.
d. Sentence XXXI	Proof	Does the evidence or argument prove the point?	The evidence is weak, since it's from Lodge, not McKinley. We have no evidence that McKinley was worried about the fall elections.
e. Sentences XI-XII	Comparison (also sample)	Are the two cases sufficiently similar to prove	It may be that Spanish actions were much worse

		the conclusion?	than in other cases. Still the analogy sheds some light on the situation.

4. Evidence:

   a. Sentence XX - At first glance, it looks like Hearst would have no reason to distort, since he is admitting dishonesty in his reporting of the Cuban Revolution. On the other hand, Hearst may have been exaggerating his role in bringing about a war which he felt was right.

   b. Sentence XXIII - This is strong evidence that deLôme meant what he said, since he had no obvious reason to distort in a private letter. The letter made deLôme look bad. What this evidence shows about the causes of the Spanish-American War is more difficult to decide, however, since it depends upon McKinley's reaction to it and many other factors.

HISTORIAN B

5. Main point:

   Sentence XXIX

OR

   William McKinley decided on war in 1898 because of Spanish policies, not because of the yellow press or jingoists.

6. Unstated assumption in sentence XVI (possible answers):

   Leaders are justified in resolving difficulties by war in order to prevent their countries from looking weak.

OR

   Leaders will resort to war to prevent their countries from looking weak.

7. Evaluate the type of reasoning:

	Type of Reasoning	Key Question	How Well Answered
a. Sentences V-VII	Debating or Proof	Debating - Does this argument fairly disprove the other viewpoint?	If sentence VI is correct, this is a very strong argument. However, sentence VI is based on a secondary source (footnote 1) which isn't directly related to this topic (it seems to be talking more about domestic party politics).
b. Sentence XIV	Proof	Does the evidence prove the point?	There is no evidence from McKinley that he felt the

			difficulties in Cuba were hurting U.S. abilities to deal with Germany.
c. Sentence XXII	Proof (eliminates an alternative-the "Maine")	Does the argument prove the point?	This argument does not disprove the "Maine" as an important cause of the War. There are several possible reasons why the US waited two months before responding. (For example, McKinley may have been waiting to see if public opinion would die down.) Also there is a probable straw man fallacy (p.21) here, since the other historians say that the "Maine" was an important cause, not the cause.

8. Opinion. On paper Spain seems to have agreed to US demands. The point on Cuban independence is more difficult to decide. In light of the relevant information, Historian B's argument is overstated that the US demands implied Cuban independence. On the other hand, the Spanish did clearly say to Secretary of State Day that they would not grant Cuban independence.

9. A. You could get differences of opinion on this. It seems to show that yellow journalism (note the bloody sword and the Cuba Libre flag) was pushing for the expulsion of the Spanish from Cuba.

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

A. To improve students' ability to evaluate longer arguments.

B. To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 52 of the teacher's guide.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

A. Students should know the various subskills involved in evaluating arguments.

B. Students will need to understand the concepts used in the readings, such as imperialism and Marxism.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

Ask the students if the U.S. is an economically imperialistic country. Discuss the question and, if necessary, what the terms mean.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Have the students read the two viewpoints and evaluate them in general or according to the MARKER model.

B. Have half the students defend Historian A (and attack Historian B's argument) and the other half defend Historian B in a debate.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at well-above-average senior high school students. There really is little way to modify the lesson for less able students.

B. Making the lesson more challenging - choose lesson option B and have students research the point of view they are defending. Or have students write an essay on United States imperialism.

VI. Troubleshooting:

Make sure that students are capable of dealing with this material - it is quite difficult.

ANSWER KEY

Evaluations of the two viewpoints will vary greatly from student to student. Students who are experienced at evaluating arguments will raise some significant questions about these viewpoints. Below are some points that could be raised for discussion:

Historian A

In sentence III we see a large increase in foreign investment at the same time that the US became imperialistic (a correlation). The author argues that the increased investments were due to the need by American companies to avoid glutting the American market (the proposed connection between the cause and the effect). If the businessmen really were concerned about declining profits then they might have pushed the United States government to become imperialistic. However, no evidence is presented to show that government decision-makers were influenced by businessmen. Also, only one businessman (Charles Conant) is presented to support the point that American businessmen, in general, feared declining profits. It is also possible that the statistics in sentence III are a case of special pleading (p.17). The historian may have chosen the most favorable statistics to make his point. We'd like to see the figures for the other years and maybe foreign investment as a percentage of GNP or total investments. The students should be asking, "compared to what?"

Historian A does put forth some evidence in footnotes 4 and 5 to show that businessmen tried to influence President McKinley on the Philippines. The quote by Mark Hanna shows that McKinley may have been influenced to take the island for commercial reasons, but the argument would be much better with a quote from McKinley.

No evidence is presented to support the argument about the American Sugar Refining Company (third paragraph) or the devastating results on the Latin American countries of United States investments (fifth paragraph).

ANSWER KEY

Historian B

In the second paragraph the author argues that foreign investments were small compared to investments within the country. This is an important point. However, the foreign investments may have been a critical part of some businesses (averages mask this consideration - it may be the fallacy of composition, p. 16). On the other hand, Historian B argues persuasively in the third paragraph against this exception.

In sentence XI Historian B makes a stated assumption when he says that we should see profits rise in the United States from 1890 to 1929. There are two possible problems with Historian B's assumption. First, the idea was to keep profits up. The fact that profits did not fall, even though they were low, may show overall success of foreign investment. Second, businessmen may have pushed the United States into imperialistic ventures hoping to increase profits, but were unsuccessful in doing so.

Sentence XIV seems weak, because capitalist investment in precious metals may have been much larger than in pre-capitalist times.

The argument in the seventh paragraph that the American Sugar Refining Company didn't profit from American policies in Cuba suffers from the same weakness as was pointed out for sentence XI. The fact that the sugar company didn't profit does not mean that it didn't try to foster imperialistic policies. The drop of sugar imports to the United States from the Dutch West Indies and Europe was beyond the control of the sugar company.

In sentence XXIV one might wonder about the 16% figure. 16% of one of the largest sugar crops in the world might be quite significant. Also, again, Americans may have been hoping to expand their exports.

The argument on the Panama Canal is quite complex and the author goes into more detail on it in the original article, ("The Returns to US Imperialism, 1890-1920", *The Journal of Economic History*, XL (June, 1980), pp. 229-252). Students might consider that the canal provided a competitive advantage for American shippers against shippers further from it (those further away would use it less frequently than they would use other routes) or against shippers who used other modes of transportation.

The students should note the general lack of evidence (as opposed to factual information, which is abundant). Also, the sources provided in the footnotes are secondary.

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 52 of the teacher's guide.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

Students should have done the introductory lessons and worksheets for types of reasoning and evidence. They should also have an understanding of what fallacies are.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

No special introduction. Start with the worksheet.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. The teacher could have students pair up and compare their answers and then the class could discuss the answers.

OR

B. The teacher could write out the answers on the chalkboard or on a transparency.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at average senior high school students.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - use familiar examples of evidence (see IN-3 for an example) and fallacies (see the examples for each fallacy on pp. 16-21 in the student booklet).

C. Making the lesson more challenging - have each student make up an argument on the U.S. entry into World War I, with at least two fallacies in the argument. Then, have students exchange papers and identify the fallacies.

VI. Troubleshooting:

Lower-ability students may have difficulty with questions 3, 4, and 7. Point out the cue words for the types of reasoning in questions 3 and 4. Use familiar example for question 7. If the teacher saw Fred hit John and then the two boys started fighting what might the teacher ask after the fight stopped? ("Why did you hit John?" "Because he stole my book.") Point out the previous cause for the immediate cause.

ANSWER KEY

1. D Primary and private, so Wilson has less reason to distort. A is public, B is not by the decision-maker himself (making D stronger), and C doesn't give reasons for the decision, since the decision hadn't been made yet.

2. B Primary and private. A is public, C and D are secondary to the actual decision.

3. B,C,D "Many" = sample; "because of" = caused in this argument; "Lusitania" and "Sussex" are used as proof .

4. C "Forced" = caused

5. D

6. B

7. B Richard's explanation is more complete. It shows a cause for the cause that Lynn put forth. Warn the students that this judgment is based only on the two short arguments given here. We can't make an informed judgment about U.S. entry into World War I in general without more study on the topic.

WP-6 LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 52 of the teacher's guide.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

A. No special student preparation is necessary if you have a class discussion of the two viewpoints in general (see Lesson Option C below).

B. Students will need to know the various subskills if you ask specific questions about assumptions, evidence, types of reasoning, fallacies and so forth.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

Have the students fill in the survey on contraband and submarines. Then have them discuss their answers in small groups and then as a class. This activity will help students clarify what their own value positions are on the topic and help them to see that other people hold different value positions.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. One way to teach the lesson is:

1. Introduce as outlined above.

2. Have students read Historian A and write an evaluation of it. Are they convinced by it? If not, where are the possible weaknesses in it? Discuss their evaluations. (The answer key for option C has materials to check the student evaluations.)

3. Have students read Historian B and write an evaluation of it. Discuss their evaluations.

4. Have students write a two-page essay explaining which view they think is stronger and why.

B. A second way to teach the lesson is to assign half the students to defend Historian A and half to defend Historian B in small group debates. Even short debates will bring out some of the weak points in the arguments. Then have students write an evaluation of the two viewpoints.

C. A third way to do the lesson is to discuss the two viewpoints as a class. Have the students write subquestions to help them break the topic down. For example, they could ask: Was the Lusitania sunk by exploding munitions? See the answer key for this type of breakdown.

D. A fourth way to teach the lesson is to have students analyze the two viewpoints according to the MARKER analysis model in the "Guide to Critical Thinking."

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - This lesson could be used with a variety of ability levels, depending upon which lesson option is chosen.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - Choose lesson option B, but you write the questions (some questions appear on the answer key) on the blackboard. Then discuss what students think about each question.

C. Making the lesson more challenging - Choose lesson option D and have students write an essay in which they evaluate the arguments.

VI. Troubleshooting:

This is a high interest lesson with a variety of lesson options which you can tailor to your students' abilities. Most students should be interested in the problem.

WP-6 ANSWER KEY

Evaluations of the two viewpoints will vary greatly from student to student. Some of the issues are questions of evidence or reasoning, but many are questions of value positions. For example, is it right to withdraw a ship (the Juno) from rescuing survivors when the ship would also be in danger of being sunk? This is why the survey handout is included. Students need to think about their own value positions before dealing with the two viewpoints.

One way to break down this complex argument is to ask subquestions on various topics. An analysis of the two viewpoints by subquestions follows:

1. Does the German warning justify torpedoing the ship?
   Obviously a question of value judgment. If you are forewarned about danger, is the responsibility for your safety your own? Analogies to such issues as cigarette smoking could be used.

2. Was the Juno supposed to escort the Lusitania?
   This is an evidence question with neither historian establishing a convincing case. Historian A's evidence doesn't clearly show that it was supposed to escort the liner, and Historian B argues that a lack of evidence shows it wasn't ordered to escort the liner (negative proof fallacy). On the other hand, Historian B's argument that the escort by a warship would not have helped the Lusitania makes sense.

3. Was the Lusitania deliberately left alone to be sunk in order to draw the United States into the War?
   Since the Lusitania probably was warned (based on the evidence) this line of reasoning seems unlikely. Historian B's argument is interesting in that Winston Churchill's other actions in his life show that he wouldn't deliberately sacrifice people in this way. Tell your students that during World War II Churchill did not warn the city of Coventry that it was going to be bombed by German airplanes because he didn't want the Germans to realize the British had broken their code. Are the two cases similar enough (comparison reasoning) to show that Churchill may have sacrificed the passengers of the Lusitania to help draw the United States into the War on Britain's side?

4. Were the Germans forced to sink the Lusitania, given the circumstances?
   A value position question.

5. Was the Lusitania sunk primarily by the munitions exploding?
   Notice that the two historians agree that the ship was loaded with munitions. Historian B's argument that the small arms ammunition couldn't have exploded seems strong.

   The question of whether the gun cotton or the boilers blew up is more difficult. Historian B's argument is weak that it was illogical to load a ship which the British were hoping to be sunk with needed materials. One group in the British Government may have loaded the gun cotton while a separate group in the British Government may have been setting it up to be sunk. On the other hand, Historian B's argument that it is much more likely that the boilers blew up is a strong one and is backed by some evidence. Students should ask two questions to help answer this problem:

Does tightly-packed gun cotton (nitrocellulose) really explode on contact with sea water? (Chemists have different opinions about it.) Where exactly are the holes on the ship? Note that the evidence by the survivors from the boiler rooms does not necessarily rule out the boilers exploding. Historian A only _infers_ that because they didn't say a boiler blew up, therefore the boilers didn't blow up. This is a weak line of reasoning.

6. Did the design of the _Lusitania_ mean that the British were partly responsible for the great loss of life?
   This is a value position question. Note that the two historians agree that the ship's design did contribute to the loss of life. They disagree whether the designer bears some responsibility for the disaster.

7. Were the British wrong to recall the _Juno_ from rescuing survivors?
   A value position question.

8. Did the British cover up the sinking in their inquiry?
   It seems that the captain of the _Lusitania_ was indeed warned of submarine activity in the area, so to that extent it probably was not a cover-up. The questions on munitions, ship's design, etc. may have been covered up but they may not have been thought to be serious questions. It may have been common knowledge at the time that there was ammunition on board, for example.

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 52 of the teacher's guide.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

A. Students should have done some previous work on main points, unstated assumptions, fallacies, types of reasoning, key questions, evidence, value words, and undefined words.

B. Students should have some basic knowledge of World War I and the United States entry into the war.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

A. Ask your students why it was difficult for the United States to stay out of World War I. (Students should suggest the involvement of the United States in Europe, the American trade with the Allies and the German submarine attacks on American people and property.) Ask: What was the main reason for the United States entry into World War I? Tell the class that this is the question that will be dealt with today.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Introduce as above, have the students answer the questions on the worksheet, and discuss them in groups of three. Then discuss the worksheets as a class.

B. Have students evaluate the two viewpoints according to MARKER (pp. 21-22 in the student booklet). You can get an idea of what an analysis might entail from the answer key for the worksheet. These worksheets contain questions on each of the parts of the model (except R—relevant information). After students do their analysis you could discuss the question: Which of the two viewpoints is stronger and why?

C. Divide the class into two groups, one pro and one con on the proposition: Submarine warfare by Germany was the main cause for the United States entry into World War I. Give the con group Historian A's argument and the pro group Historian B's viewpoint. You could also bring in other sources to have students research the topic further in preparation for their debate. Have the students debate the proposition in small groups (perhaps 3 against 3) and then, if desired, as a class. Analyze the debate for conclusions, types of reasoning, evidence, and so forth.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at average to above-average senior high school students.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - have students do only Historian

A, which contains less difficult vocabulary, and do questions 1, 3, and 6 from the worksheet only.

C. Making the lesson more challenging - choose lesson option B. Then have students follow up with more in-depth research of the United States entry into World War I, and an essay on the topic.

VI. Troubleshooting:

A lot of skills are taught in this lesson. However, if you try to hit too many of the skills the students may lose interest. Be careful not to take too long teaching the skills.

ANSWER KEY

Historian A

1. Main point: The main cause for the United States entry into World War I was American loans and trade with the Allies.

2. Unstated Assumption: Countries which have more trade with one country than another treat the first country better because of the economic trade.

or

Countries treat their largest customer better than they do other countries because of their trade with their largest customer.

or

Diplomatic protests are controlled by economic considerations. (Note the general phrasing. Ask students if they agree with the assumption. They are likely to conclude that evidence is needed to prove the assumption.)

3. Unstated assumption: It is wrong to make loans or trade with one side in a war if you can't make loans or trade with the other side,also. (Note to students the value judgment in this assumption.)

4. C - the key words are "would have."

5. To answer this question the students must remember first,to identify the type of reasoning used; second,to ask the key question; and third,to decide what they think.

   a. Sentence VII is primarily cause and effect reasoning based on the cue word "resulted." (It is also sample reasoning). The author doesn't make any effort to show the connection between the war trade (the cause) and prosperity in the United States (the effect). It seems logical that the war trade would help cause prosperity, but there may have been other, more important factors. Without evidence, the author may be guilty of post hoc reasoning (p.17 — the prosperity occurred right after the war trade began; therefore,the war trade caused the prosperity).

   b. Sentence VIII is also primarily cause and effect reasoning. The cue word here is "made," meaning caused us to be. Again, the connection between the cause (our trade) and the effect (our being unneutral) is unclear. For example, how do we know that the reverse is not true, that our being sympathetic with Britain and France (ie. unneutral) caused us to trade with these countries? We need to know if there is evidence of the United States being unneutral before the loans were granted. The author may have committed the correlation as cause fallacy (p.18) here.

   c. Sentence XII is a combination of cause and effect and proof by eliminating alternatives reasoning. The connection between American loans and supplies to the Allies (the cause) and German unrestricted submarine warfare (the effect) is not made. Ask your students: what kind of evidence might show the connection between American loans and the German decision to try unrestricted submarine warfare? (Possible answer: Arguments at top level meetings by German leaders that they should try unrestricted submarine warfare to counteract American loans and trade.)

In the proof reasoning the author does not eliminate alternatives to unrestricted submarine warfare. However, it is hard to think of an effective alternative to submarine warfare for Germany to stop American trade.

6. This is strong evidence because the President is showing that what he himself allowed (credits) was not neutral - that is, he has no obvious reason to distort. We might want to see the context of the statement which would give us a better idea of why he said it.

Historian B

7. Main point: The German submarine campaign was the main reason why the United States entered World War I.

8. Unstated assumption: People are more precious than property.

or It is worth going to war over the killing of people.

9. False Scenario (p.20).

10. False Scenario.

11. Single cause (p.17).

12. Sentence II - greed; sentence XXI - undiscriminating, destruction.

13. Sentence XI - protested; sentence XXIV - effective; sentence XXIX - critical.

14. Answers will vary on this question.

    a. Historian B shows that propaganda and pro-Allied sympathy would not necessarily have pushed us into the War, but he does not show that it couldn't have pushed us into the War, either.

    b. Historian B argues that the businessmen involved in the war trade had no direct contact with the government and that, therefore, the war trade could not have influenced the government. The unstated assumption here-that businessmen need direct contact with government in order to influence it -is highly questionable. For example, Historian A argues that it was the general prosperity of the country which caused American political leaders to be unneutral.

15. This question forces students to look for the part of the argument which is not debating but rather which attempts to prove that submarine warfare did push America into the War. That is, it forces students to examine the part of the argument which supports the main point. Only the last two paragraphs support the main point. Note that in these two short paragraphs there is no evidence to show that submarines were the key factor in the United States entry into the War.

16. Answers will vary. Point out that Historian A shows a cause (war trade) for Historian B's cause (German submarine warfare). Historian B attempts to show that there was no connection between the war trade and the government's decision for war.

DEPRESSION ERA

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

A. To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 52 of the teacher's guide.

B. To have students organize and present information in a coherent argument.

C. To improve students' writing skills.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

None necessary. General information about the political climate of the 1920's, in particular the Palmer Raids and the Red Scare, could be presented as effectively as a follow-up to this lesson as it could be as preparation for the lesson.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

Ask students: Is making a judgment about a historical figure the same as making a legal judgment in court that someone is guilty of a crime? (No. In history we make judgments based on preponderance of evidence. We think something happened a particular way based on the evidence. In a court a person has to be found guilty beyond a reasonable doubt. A preponderance of evidence is not enough - we have to prove guilt conclusively. There is no such presumption of innocence in history.) Tell your students that today the class will be dealing with the historical question of what happened and the legal question of guilt or innocence in the Sacco and Vanzetti Case of the 1920's.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. One way to teach the lesson is:

1. Introduce as above.

2. Have students fill in the worksheet as directed with G, I, or N, and discuss their answers.

3. Have students individually or in groups of three make up arguments that Sacco and Vanzetti were either guilty or innocent in the historical sense. That is, did they or did they not commit the crime? They do not have to show that Sacco and Vanzetti were guilty beyond a reasonable doubt.

4. Have students present their arguments to show that Sacco and Vanzetti did or did not commit the crime.

5. Have the class vote whether they think the two accused men were guilty or not in a historical sense. You might want to have the students write their verdicts on slips of paper and pass them in, as students may be influenced by others in a show of hands.

6. Now have the class vote whether Sacco and Vanzetti were guilty

or innocent in a legal sense. Are the votes different? Why? Should they be? Tell the class that Sacco and Vanzetti were found guilty and were executed in August, 1927.

7. Be sure to discuss critical thinking points brought up in the presentations, especially evaluation of evidence.

8. Ask the students whether they think the two men received a fair trial. (There is more evidence that could be researched by students on this question, as on all the other questions in this case.)

9. Tell the students to look at the photographs of Sacco and Vanzetti and ask: Which photos would you use if you were trying to show that the two men were guilty? Discuss their answers.

10. Ask the students how the following information would affect the questions about the Sacco and Vanzetti Case: (Remind them that some of the information is questionable.)

    - Only three shells may have been found at the scene of the murders.

    - Judge Thayer made negative comments about anarchists in general.

    - Assistant Norfolk County District Attorney Harold P. Williams, who helped prosecute the case, had tears in his eyes when the guilty verdict was announced. When someone congratulated him he responded, "For God's sake, don't rub it in. This is the saddest thing that ever happened to me in my life."

    - The state of Massachusetts wiretapped Felix Frankfurter's telephone in August 1927, right before Sacco and Vanzetti were executed. Frankfurter was a leader of the Sacco-Vanzetti Defense Committee.

    - Fred Moore, a lawyer for Sacco and Vanzetti, told an interviewer, "Sacco was probably, Vanzetti possibly guilty."

The point of raising this new information with students is to show that as new evidence becomes available, hypotheses about some historical questions may change. This seems especially true in this controversial case.

B. A second way to teach the lesson is to have students read the information in the student booklet and write opinions of whether Sacco and Vanzetti were guilty, and then discuss their opinions as a class.

C. A third way to teach the lesson is to have three students be defense attorneys and three prosecutors, and have them present their cases to the class. The class then votes as the jury on legal guilt or innocence. Afterwards, have the class vote on their historical (not legal) argument of guilt or innocence. Again, discuss points of critical thinking, such as evidence and reasoning.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - this lesson could be used with a variety of ability levels.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - choose lesson option B, but don't have them write out long opinions on whether Sacco and Vanzetti were guilty. You might also want to give students a chronology of what happened before you start the lesson.

C. Making the lesson more challenging - have students follow up whatever lesson option you choose with further research and an essay dealing with one of the questions involved in the case: (1) Were Sacco and Vanzetti guilty or innocent as a historical judgment? (2)Were they legally guilty? (3) Did they receive a fair trial? (4) What effects did the case have?

VI. Troubleshooting:

The lesson should hold student interest for at least one class period. Some students may become frustrated by the amount of information and the contradictory nature of a lot of the evidence. They may want a clear, simple answer. Don't give it to them.

ANSWER KEY

1. N
2. G - It isn't very strong, but it could be used by prosecutors.
3. N
4. G - Now information 3 is significant.
5. G
6. G
7. G - The anarchism part should be interesting to discuss. Do students think that radicals are more likely to commit violent crimes? You could discuss the political climate of the 1920's at this point. Some students should question why pacifists were carrying guns.
8. I - It shows that maybe information 5 and 6 can be explained.
9. I - Same as information 8.
10. G
11. N - It shows that maybe the police were unfair, but it doesn't show that Sacco and Vanzetti were innocent.
12. N
13. I
14. I or G - It seems to show a lack of reliability in witnesses' testimony. However, some did identify Sacco.
15. N - See information 11, above.
16. G
17. I
18. I
19. I - It shows a lack of reliability among witnesses.
20. I
21. G
22. G
23. I
24. I
25. G - This weakens the defense's case.
26. I
27. G
28. G

There is a lot more information that could be added to the information given in the booklet. The teacher can decide how much, if any, to add.

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 52 of the teacher's guide.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

Students should have done some work with conclusions, types of reasoning, fallacies, and evidence.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

Write this argument on the chalkboard:

> "The fight at the dance was the principal's fault. When the principal arrived the fight broke out."

Ask: What is this person trying to prove (or what is the conclusion)? (Answer: the principal caused the fight.) What is wrong with this reasoning? (It doesn't show any connection between the principal - the cause - and the fight - the effect.) What fallacy is this, from pages 17-18 in your booklets? (It is post hoc reasoning. Students may also say correlation as cause, which is the occurrence of pairs of events close in time repeatedly, not just once. The distinction isn't as important as student understanding that this is a weak argument.) Tell the class that one of the problems they'll look at today has to do with cause and effect reasoning.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Introduce the lesson, have the students fill in the worksheet and discuss as a class.

B. Same as above, but have students compare answers in small groups before they discuss as a class.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at average senior high school students.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - tell the students that the answer to question 2 is D - it is a proof argument. Then have them answer question 3. For question 5 remind students to look for cue words ("led to" indicates cause and effect reasoning). For question 6 remind the class of the introductory argument on the chalkboard. For question 7 remind students of PROP for evaluating evidence.

VI. Troubleshooting:

This is meant to be a short lesson. Try to keep it short. Some students may have difficulty with the abstract nature of reasoning types and fallacies. Use the suggestions above under "Making the lesson less difficult" to help them.

DE-2

ANSWER KEY

1. A

2. D The author uses the argument that Harding wasn't involved in the Teapot Dome to prove that Harding was a very good president. This is a weak proof, as the next question gets at.

3. C

4. A

5. C Note the cue words "led to."

6. B

7. C or D Students should recognize the reason to distort in A, and the lack of connection to the riot in B. The person in D has the least reason to distort and the evidence is private. Note that none of this evidence is very strong because of the lack of corroboration. More than one piece of evidence is needed, especially in a complex event such as this.

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

1. To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 52 of the teacher's guide.

2. To help students to realize that there are several hypotheses about the main cause of the Depression.

3. To help students to better understand economic concepts related to the American economy.

4. To help students to understand that a person's view of history may affect what that person thinks should be done in the future (for example, government policy).

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

1. Students should have done some work with main points and types of reasoning.

2. Although some economic concepts are explained in the overview of the lesson, students will need some understanding of economics.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

Hand out or read the overview to introduce the lesson. The terms will help students better understand the arguments. However, the teacher may want to supplement the overview with a discussion of the creation of money by banks with fractional reserves. This could also be done through a discussion of what happens to a deposit of $1000. Most economics books have a few pages on the creation of money. Understanding money is important to Historian E's argument.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Introduce the lesson, have the students read the viewpoints, and answer the questions on the worksheet. Then have students compare their answers in groups of three. Discuss as a class. Then have students read and evaluate the explanation of the causes of the Depression as portrayed in a history textbook, or in several textbooks.

B. Have students evaluate the viewpoints without the worksheets. Have them write an essay explaining which of the viewpoints is strongest and why.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at above-average senior high school students.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - don't have students read Historian F and don't have them answer questions 4, 7, 8, and 9. You could also spend more time explaining economic concepts and relationships before having students read the viewpoints.

C. Making the lesson more challenging - use lesson option B. Also, you could have students do further research on the causes of the Depression, on such questions as interest rates, production levels, unemployment rates, GNP, money supply, and so forth. Students could then construct their own arguments about the causes of the Depression. Some worthwhile sources to examine are Milton Friedman and Anna Schwartz, The Great Contraction, 1920 - 1933; Peter Temin, Did Monetary Forces Cause the Great Depression?; Charles Kindelberger, Manias, Panics, and Crashes: A History of Financial Crisis; and Elliott, Brownlee, Dynamics of Ascent: A History of the American Economy.

VI. Troubleshooting:

Some students may have difficulty with the abstract nature of economic causation. The if-then reasoning used by Historian F about interest rates and the money supply may be especially difficult.

Another problem may be that students will conclude that none of the viewpoints is worthwhile. Actually, that conclusion may not be too far wrong on this topic. Economist Peter Temin has argued that none of the hypotheses on the Great Depression has been adequately tested. He feels there is a lot more study and thinking that needs to be done before more solid conclusions can be reached. You could tell students that our degree of agreement and of knowledge differs from topic to topic. On this topic there are many disagreements and unanswered questions. Nevertheless, our government's leaders must make some policy decisions based on their best hypotheses about the causes of the Great Depression. And clearly, some of the viewpoints are stronger than others.

ANSWER KEY

Question Sheet on Viewpoints

1. Main point of Historian A: The weaknesses of the American economy (declining industries, technological unemployment, unequal distribution of income, and foreign trade problems) were the main cause of the Depression.

2. Main point of Historian B: The main cause of the Great Depression was the unequal distribution of income in the 1920's.

3. Based on the key question for cause and effect reasoning (Does the historian show the connection between the cause and the effect?), Historian B has the stronger explanation. Historian B at least explains that unequal distribution of income leads to overproduction, but does not explain how overproduction leads to depression. Historian A does not explain how _any_ of his causes led to the Depression.

4. Assumption: The stock crash was equal to the Depression, _or_ Once the stock market crashed Depression was inevitable, _or_ When the stock market crashed America was immediately plunged into the Depression _or_ The stock crash was the only cause of the Depression.

5. Historian C gives a clearly stronger argument, by explaining how the stock crash would cause a decline in spending and investment, thus in GNP. Historian D only shows what caused the bull market and why the market declined so much once the prices started to decline.

6. Main point of Historian E: The decline in the money supply, due to the bank panic and the restrictive policies of the Federal Reserve Bank, was the primary cause of the Great Depression.

7. A weakness in Historian E's argument could be correlation as cause. How do we know that the decline in national income did not cause the decline in the money supply, rather than the other way around. See the answer for question 10, Historian F for an explanation of the debate between Historians E and F on this point.

8. Main point of Historian F: The decline in spending in 1930 was the main cause of the Great Depression.

9. Several possible answers: What factors does he think caused spending to decline so much in 1930? How low were interest rates? Were all interest rates low?

10. Weaknesses:

    Historian A - Relevant information 5 weakens this viewpoint, along with all the weaknesses listed below for Historian B.

    Historian B - Relevant information 3 shows that the increase in production and the decrease in consumption due to unequal distribution of income could not have been very important. Even if the rich people used all of their money for production and the poor used all of theirs for consumption, the change in income would only account for a 2% decrease in consumption - not a significant factor in the 36% decrease in national income from 1929 to 1933.

Relevant information 4 also hurts this argument, since it shows that the assumption that crashes lead inevitably to depressions is not warranted.

Both Historians A and B commit the post hoc fallacy (p. 17 in the Guide). They reason that since the Depression followed the stock crash, the stock crash must have caused the Depression.

Historian C - Relevant information 1 and 2 show that the stock market crash was not significant compared to the decline in national income which followed it. It may be, as one economist put it, that the stock crash was the initial shock which led to a macroeconomic meltdown. Even if this is true, there has to be more explanation on how it caused the meltdown.

Relevant information 4 weakens the argument, as explained for Historian B. The first paragraph of Historian E also weakens this argument since he points out that everyone agrees there was a recession in 1929. So the stock crash may have caused a recession in 1929. The question is why the economy didn't recover in 1930.

Historian F - Relevant information 6 might weaken his case, but we don't know. The argument is quite complex between these two historians. Historian E claims that the other interest rates are a better indicator of the supply and demand for money, while Historian F claims that short-term interest rates are the key indicator.

11. Solutions for depressions: Answers will vary. Some reasonable inferences are:

Historian B - Equalize wealth more. (Some New Deal programs and tax legislation tried to do this.)

Historian D - Regulate the stock market to control speculation and buying on margin. (The Securities and Exchange Commission was set up to do this.)

Historian E - Try a more expansionary monetary policy during a depression. Start insuring bank deposits to prevent bank panics (such as FDIC).

Historian F - Stimulate more spending during a depression. (This would be done through the Keynesian policy of deficit spending.)

LESSON PLAN

DE-4 DEPRESSION ERA

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

A. To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 52 of the teacher's guide.

B. To help students to better understand the political spectrum and specifically the current usage of the labels "liberal" and "conservative."

C. To help students to see that some terms are extremely complex, and that some people's meaning of a term might be different from other people's meaning.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

A. Students should have a basic understanding of what a depression is. You might want to review with the class the economic characteristics of depressions.

B. No preparation on the New Deal is necessary.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

A. Ask students if some well-known polititian, such as President Reagan, is a liberal or conservative. Make students give reasons to support their answers.

B. Ask students what should be done about the graduated income tax (keep it? change it?) and welfare (expand it? reduce it?) Then ask them if their positions are liberal or conservative.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Introduce the lesson, have students read the handout on "The Political Spectrum," and have them fill in the "Worksheet on New Deal Proposals." Discuss their answers. Then have students in groups of three or four decide which proposal(s) they would choose in 1933.

B. Same as A, but have students compare answers to the worksheet in small groups.

C. Skip the "Political Spectrum" handout if your students already understand these terms.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at average to above average senior high school students.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - do only questions 1, 2, 5, and 9 from the worksheet.

V. Altering the Lesson (continued):

C. Making the lesson more challenging - have each student research one New Deal program to determine in what ways, if any, it was liberal or conservative. This might be especially interesting with the NRA. Ask students how foreign countries solved the problem of the Depression.

VI. Troubleshooting:

Some students may argue that their label is right for a particular proposal. Ask them for their reasons, explain the reasons for your answer and then go on to the next question. It wastes class time to debate a particular answer, especially when the terms involved are so vague.

DE-4 DEPRESSION ERA

ANSWER KEY

WORKSHEET ON NEW DEAL PROPOSALS

(There can be reasonable differences of opinion about the answers. Ask students to support their choices.)

1. A or B Proposed by Rexford Tugwell, one of FDR's "brain trust."

2. D

3. D This is similar to the actual set up of the NRA. It is important to note from this that originally the New Deal was conservative (pro-business), at least to some extent.

4. D Similar to President Hoover's position.

5. B

6. B Similar to the Keynesian position.

7. A Huey Long's position.

8. E? The Fascist solution to the Depression. This is what Germany tried under the Nazis. Interestingly enough, "A" would be an acceptable answer also.

9. A The Communist solution.

10. D Again, similar to President Hoover's position.

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

A. To help students to develop the skill of relating information to hypotheses.

B. To help students to learn to use if-then thinking to test arguments. (For example, a student might reason: You argue that A was important to World War II. But if A was important then B should have resulted, and B didn't result. Therefore, I question whether A was important.)

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

No special preparation is necessary.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

Hold out a pencil in your hand and ask. If I let go of this pencil then ----? (The pencil will drop.) What relevant information do you need to know to say that the pencil will drop. (There is gravity to pull the pencil down.)

Tell the students that we can use this if-then thinking to reason backwards. That is, if the pencil stays in my hand, then we might reason that I did not let go of it. Tell them to note,also,that you need to know relevant information (gravity) to use this if-then reasoning. Tell them that they're going to use if-then reasoning to draw some conclusions not about pencils dropping, but about the New Deal.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Introduce the lesson, have the students fill in the worksheet without the relevant information and discuss a few answers. Then give the students the relevant information (or read it to them) and tell them they can change their answers if they'd like to. Discuss their new answers as a class. Note that some of the pieces of relevant information are simplifications of complex topics. One such simplification is number 11 in regard to the gold standard. Some economists believe that getting off the gold standard helped the U. S. economy by expanding the money supply. You can add complications wherever you'd like - the effort here was to simplify the information to make it easier for students to focus on if-then reasoning.

B. Same as above, but have students discuss their answers in small groups.

C. Same as option A, but give the students the relevant information the first time they try the worksheet.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at average to above-average senior high school students.

B. Making the lesson more challenging - skip the concrete demonstration in the lesson introduction and start instead with the worksheet. Or, have students follow up by writing their own if-then reasoning statements on other aspects of the New Deal.

C. Making the lesson less difficult - do only questions 1, 2, 4, and 5.

VI. Troubleshooting

The information and reasoning involved in the lesson are abstract. Some students may have difficulty with some of the questions. Skip questions 3 and 8, which are the most abstract and complex.

ANSWER KEY

(X indicates a blank for an answer)

1. True - Relevant information 2.

2. X

3. X Relevant information 11 shows the opposite is more likely to be true.

4. True - Relevant information 2.

5. X Relevant information 5 and 6.

6. X Relevant information 3 shows that an increase in the GNP after 1940 would more likely be due to World War II than the New Deal.

7. X Relevant information 4.

8. X Relevant information 12. A more equal distribution of wealth may be a worthy goal by itself but it does not indicate recovery from depression, according to this information.

9. True - Relevant information 8 and 10.

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

A. To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on page 53 of the teacher's guide.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

A. Students should have some understanding of the New Deal.

B. Students should have done some work on main points, assumptions, and fallacies.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

Review with students the four steps in finding unstated assumptions, as well as the false scenario fallacy on page 20, the numbers fallacy on page 19, *ad hominem* on page 21, and prevalent proof on page 20. Make sure students understand that a false scenario does not always have to include the word "if".

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Introduce as above, have students fill in the problem sheet, and discuss.

B. Skip the lesson introduction and start the lesson with the problem sheet.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at average to below-average senior high school students.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - expand the lesson introduction with more examples from the student booklet or the introductory worksheets from the source envelope. Or skip questions 2 and 3.

C. Making the lesson more challenging - do lesson option B. Or do DE-6B instead.

VI. Troubleshooting:

Try not to get bogged down too long on questions 2 and 3. Maybe you could do those questions last.

ANSWER KEY

Historian A

1. Sentence I. Students could reasonably argue that sentence IV is the main point, also.

2. Possible assumption (Remind students of the four steps in finding an unstated assumption as shown on the Ideas for Posters sheet at the front of the resource envelope.):

    - When many people are upset with their economic system there is a possibility of revolution.

    - When many people are upset with their economic system, government involvement and reform is needed.

    - Government involvement and reform can rescue capitalism.

    (Note the general phrasing.)

3. C - see page 20 in the student book. The reasoning here basically is: "If there was no New Deal, then capitalism would have failed."

4. A

5. Needed, or rescued. These words show a favorable view of the New Deal.

Historian B

6. The New Deal hurt our country by expanding government.

7. B

8. Meddling, flaws, contradictory, haphazard.

9. It is a poor comparison, since the government today is much larger than the government in the 1930's. Thus the government today would be more likely to suffer from the flaws indicated.

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

A. To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on page 53 of the teacher's guide.

B. To show students that even when historians disagree in general, they agree on some points.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

A. Students should have a general understanding of the New Deal before doing this lesson.

B. Students should have done some work on main points, types of reasoning, evidence, and words which make value judgments.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

Ask your students: Was the New Deal, on balance, good or bad for the country? Discuss a few answers, but don't go into a lot of detail.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Introduce, have students read the viewpoints and fill in the worksheets, and then discuss the answers as a class.

B. Same as lesson option A but have students discuss their answers in small groups before discussing as a class.

C. Instead of using the worksheet have the students analyze one of the viewpoints according to the MARKER model, explained on pp. 21-22 of the student booklet. (The students should be able to use their reading on the New Deal prior to this lesson for relevant information.)

D. Use the viewpoints as a springboard for further student research for position papers or a debate on the New Deal.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at average to above-average senior high school students.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - do DE-6A instead.

C. Making the lesson more challenging - choose lesson option D, and have students analyze the arguments made in the debate.

VI. Troubleshooting:
Questions 2, 8, and 9 on the worksheet are more difficult, so some students may have more difficulty with them. On the other hand, the worksheet should go fairly quickly.

DE - 6B DEPRESSION ERA

ANSWER KEY

Historian A:

1. Possible main points:

   - The New Deal was bad for our country. (ie. it was radical.)

   - The New Deal was a failure.

2. B, C, D

3. None. Sentence VII offers factual information, but not evidence, since no source is given.

4. Historian A would agree:

   A. Done

   B. Government interference in the economy is bad.

   C. Bureaucracy is bad.

   Large government leads to waste, corruption, inefficiency and high taxes.

   (There are many others.)

Historian B:

5. Possible main points:

   - The New Deal helped our country.

   - The New Deal reformed and saved the capitalist system. (ie. it was conservative.)

6. Strong, leadership, sorely, needed.

7. None

8. B

9. Key question: Is the sample large and representative enough to make the conclusion a good one?

   Evaluation: This author likely did not take a poll to find out if anyone starved. And since he/she says "no one," only one person who did starve would disprove the generalization.

COLD WAR

CO-1

COLD WAR

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

A. To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 53 of the teacher's guide.

B. To help students to see that many historical events, such as the dropping of the atomic bombs, are made up of value positions and judgments in addition to evidence and reasoning.

C. To help students to see that the question of why the United States dropped the atomic bomb is more complicated than they had thought.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

A. Students should be familiar with some of the critical thinking skills necessary to evaluating an argument, such as evaluating evidence, identifying and evaluating types of reasoning, and identifying unstated assumptions.

B. Students would benefit from some basic knowledge of World War II and the Manhattan Project, but it is not necessary.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

Ask students some recall questions about the atomic bomb to make sure they have some of the basic knowledge of the topic. Then have them fill in the Value Survey on the Atomic Bomb. Have the students discuss their answers in groups of three and discuss as a class. Bring out the point, if none of your students does, that even when people have the same information they can disagree in their viewpoints, because they disagree in what they value. For example, some people believe that warning the Japanese that we would wipe them out with the bombs justifies the bombings, while others will say that it does not justify it.

You can help students to examine their value positions more fully by asking questions like these: Does warning always make an action justifiable? (#1) Does saving more lives in the end always make an action justifiable? (#2) Is continuing military action when the other side is trying to surrender always wrong? (#4)

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Introduce the lesson, have the students read both viewpoints and have them decide whether they feel the United States was justified in dropping the atomic bombs. Divide the class into pro and con to debate in small groups the proposition that the United States was justified in dropping the atomic bombs. (Use the students who are undecided to even the two groups off.) Then discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the two viewpoints as a class. Even though there is no formal analysis done of each viewpoint students are likely to raise difficult points about the opposing viewpoint in their debate.

Before having students debate, give them five minutes to organize. Have them write out five arguments that they want to make to their opponents. Cue each group to question the evidence and reasoning of its opponents.

B. Introduce the lesson, have the students read Historian A's view and have them evaluate it according to the MARKER model. Discuss the viewpoint as a class: Do some students agree with its main point? Are there weak points in it? Have them read Historian B's viewpoint and evaluate it according to MARKER. Discuss again: What were the strengths and weaknesses of this interpretation? Do some students agree with its main point? Which of the interpretations is stronger? Can you feel that one of the viewpoints is stronger but disagree with its conclusion? (That is, for example, can you feel that the argument is stronger that the United States was justified in dropping the atomic bombs, but still conclude that the United States was not justified?)

Remind students that there is relevant information included in the problem (in the source envelope). They should use this information and any other information they have on the decision to drop the bombs in the R (relevant information) part of their evaluation.

C. Introduce the lesson, have students read both viewpoints, and have them discuss the viewpoints as a class. In this way, both you and the students can bring out points that you feel are important. You could have students list three arguments which each historian makes to support his main point. Have students designate which argument is strongest. Ask: What makes an argument strong? You could also have students evaluate the evidence presented by each historian.

D. Have students read the two viewpoints and work in groups to decide which viewpoint is stronger and why. Each group then makes a report to the class on its evaluation of the two viewpoints.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at average to above-average senior high school students. The viewpoints are complex and challenging, but the high interest of the topic should keep most students involved enough to work through the complexities. More sophisticated students should make more abstract and sophisticated analyses of the viewpoints.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - choose lesson option A. Or you could make up a worksheet focusing on the main points and evidence only. An interesting discussion can be generated just about the evidence.

C. Making the lesson more challenging - choose lesson option B. You could follow this up by having students write an essay in support of one of the viewpoints. Or you could have students do further research on questions raised on the topic.

VI. Troubleshooting:

Students may become frustrated by the lack of resolution of many of the questions raised in this topic. Each argument may have a strong counterargument and many of the disagreements arise from differences in values, not evidence. It might be best to talk individually with students who are frustrated. You could discuss the tentative nature of truth in history as opposed to the more definitive type of truth found in mathematics, for example. Tell these students that for their own good they need to be exposed to these more elusive types of problems in history which defy easy answers.

Some students may tire of the topic if it goes on too long. However I have been able to use it for several class periods with no difficulties due to the high interest generated by the topic.

COLD WAR

Analysis of Historian A
(Some ideas for discussion - this is only a partial analysis)

M (Main point) - The United States was not justified in dropping the atomic bombs on Japan.

A (Assumptions) - Paragraph 2: A policy (such as unconditional surrender) which is changed later is not a worthy enough policy for which to kill people. This is an interesting proposition to discuss. Could the policy have been worthy enough at one point, but not at a later point? Note that relevant information 5 is related to this question.

R (Reasoning) - Proof by evidence (throughout), sample (paragraph 7, 10), cause and effect (paragraphs 5, 10), and debating (paragraph 1) are used by Historian A. It is sample, and proof by evidence which are the most prevalent, however.

K (Key Questions) - The key questions for sample and proof by evidence reasoning are: Is the sample large and representative enough? (sample) and Does the evidence prove the point? (proof by evidence)

The sample of military leaders from paragraph 10, footnote 8 is impressive in that they are leaders from that time. However, it is only three leaders - what about the others? One could reasonably question if the military was divided about whether to use the bomb. If there were military leaders in favor of using the bomb, this historian might be guilty of the fallacy of special pleading (p. 17 in the student book).

The evidence presented brings up some interesting points. Some of the key pieces of evidence are presented by Secretary of War Stimson and Secretary of State Byrnes. If we assume for a moment that the evidence conclusively shows that Stimson and Byrnes were interested in the atomic bomb for diplomatic reasons, does this show that the bomb was dropped for diplomatic reasons? Not necessarily. There were many other advisers involved and President Truman seems to have been the final decision-maker (the buck stopped there). We need to know more about how important Stimson and Byrnes were to the actual decision; about the decision-making process; and about Truman's motives for dropping the bomb.

Other evidence seems to indicate that President Truman was tougher with the Russians after the bomb was successfully tested. However, this does not mean that the primary motivation for dropping the bomb was diplomatic advantage over the Russians. Diplomatic advantage could have been an incidental benefit to be gained from a decision made for other, more important, reasons (perhaps saving lives).

The evidence showing that American leaders wanted to stop Soviet expansion in Asia again only provides a possible motive for dropping the atomic bombs on Japan. It does not show that the bombs were used primarily for diplomatic reasons. In fact, it doesn't really show that the bombs were used to stop Russian expansion at all - it only hints at it.

E (Evidence) - The evidence by Stimson (footnotes 2, 5, 7) and Byrnes (footnotes 1, 7) is strong because the authors have no reason to distort what they say - it makes them look bad.

The evidence by Szilard (footnote 2) is weaker. Szilard was opposed to the use of the bomb, which makes him a biased recorder of what Byrnes said.

The evidence by Eisenhower and Leahy (footnote 8) is weak, because these men have a reason to distort (they don't want to be identified with the use of atomic weapons). Also, they, along with LeMay, might not want to give credit for the Japanese defeat to the atomic bombs rather than to the efforts of their own forces (army, navy, and air force, respectively).

R (Relevant Information)- Relevant information number 1 is related to paragraph 6, footnote 6. It should make us question the reliability of Historian A, since it seems to show that Historian A took a quote by President Truman out of context to prove something which Truman never intended.

Relevant information 3 and 5 lend support to Historian A's interpretation.

COLD WAR

Analysis of Historian B

(Some ideas for discussion - this is only a partial analysis)

M (Main point) - The United States was justified in dropping the atomic bombs on Japan.

A (Assumptions) - Paragraph 4: A policy which hurts a war effort should not be adopted. You might want to ask: Is protesting against a war which you feel is misguided wrong? Is it always wrong for a government official to question a policy during a war which he/she feels is wrong, even if it hurts the war effort? Just what helps or hurts war efforts?

R (Reasoning) - Comparison (paragraph 2), sample (throughout), proof by evidence (throughout), proof by eliminating alternatives (paragraphs 6, 7, 8, 10), and debating (paragraph 4) are used by Historian B. Proof by evidence and proof by eliminating alternatives are used most frequently.

K (Key Questions) - The key question for proof by evidence is: Does the evidence prove the point? The evidence presented in paragraphs 3, 4, and 5 does make the reader question whether Japan was close to anything like unconditional surrender. Questions could still be raised on this point however. Was unconditional surrender really worth insisting on to the point of using atomic weapons? Does the information that the Japanese leaders were deadlocked really have any bearing on our decision to drop the bombs? After all, we didn't know what they were saying in their meetings. We dropped the bombs without pursuing any negotiations with the Japanese. Is what they were thinking really relevant if we didn't even talk with them?

The evidence by the Interim Committee (paragraph 8) puts the opposition of some scientists to dropping the bomb into perspective by showing that other scientists were in favor of a military use of the bomb. However, it doesn't prove that the bomb was not dropped for diplomatic reasons. Maybe the members of the Committee were thinking of the diplomatic advantages of the bomb when they decided that it was too risky to demonstrate the bomb to Japanese leaders.

The evidence that we warned the Japanese (paragraph 9) is tricky. Students should note that in footnote 8 there is no mention of the words "atomic bomb" or "bomb". Did this message really warn the Japanese of what was to come?

The key question for proof by eliminating alternatives is: Are all the alternatives really eliminated? The eliminating alternative reasoning used in paragraph 6 might be restated: President Truman could not have rushed the dropping of the bombs to stop Russian entry into the War, since he didn't control the dates of the bombings. This argument does make the reader think that stopping the Russians may not have been the highest priority. On the other hand, Truman may have made it clear that the bombs should be dropped as soon as possible, but left the exact days of the bombings to the military. The question at the end of paragraph 6 could be answered: Truman could get both unconditional surrender and the end of the War before Russia entered it by using the bombs.

The eliminating alternatives reasoning in paragraph 7 is weak. The fact that we didn't actually scare the Russians with the atomic bomb has no bearing on whether we intended to scare them with the bomb.

The key question for the comparison reasoning in paragraph 2 is: Are the two cases similar enough to make the conclusion a good one? The argument might be restated: Unconditional surrender would have made for a better peace at the end of World War I; therefore, it was needed at the end of World War II. The discussion of the similarities and differences between the two cases could be interesting.

E (Evidence) - The evidence in footnotes 2, 3, and 5 are secondary sources. They will need to be checked for accuracy against primary evidence.

The evidence in footnote 8 is strong, since the United States leaders would have no reason to demand surrender unless they meant it. However, privately, it is possible the American government was making different demands. (There is no evidence of this.)

The evidence in footnote 9 is weakened by the fact that it is a public statement and Suzuki might have a reason to distort. That is, the Japanese government might have felt to keep morale up it had to say it would ignore demands for surrender.

R (Relevant Information) - Relevant information 2 lends some support to Historian B's argument in paragraph 8.

CO-1

COLD WAR

ANSWER KEY

General Comments

Both historians engage in hypothetical reasoning, for example: "If the United States had not dropped the bombs the Japanese would have surrendered soon, anyway." In one sense this reasoning commits the fallacy of false scenario (p. 20 in the *Guide to Critical Thinking*). However, the issue of whether the United States was justified in dropping the atomic bombs seems inextricably entwined with hypothetical reasoning. Thus, the evaluation of interpretations on the issue should include analysis of hypothetical reasoning based on the evidence presented that such-and-such would have happened if something else had happened. In short, how reasonably are the hypothetical results argued?

You might want to discuss with your students the whole philosophical question of hypothetical scenarios in history. Some historians have argued that econometric works such as Robert Fogel's *Railroads and American Economic Growth* are not real history, since they remove some element (railroads in this case) from history and then project what might have occurred without that element. Other historians argue that a great deal of history involves hypothetical reasoning by implication. Merely stating that something (like railroads) was a key factor in events (like economic growth) is by implication making a hypothetical argument. That is, it is arguing that had that one element not been present events would have been significantly different. It is an interesting question to discuss.

The issue of motivation is a key factor in the analysis of the dropping of the atomic bombs. It is partly the elusiveness of pinning down the motivation of historical figures that has led to such different interpretations of this topic. You might want to discuss the question of motivation with your students.

CO-2

COLD WAR

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

A. To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 53 of the teacher's guide.

B. To show students one method that can be used to identify value judgments and to teach students how to question and think more deeply about those value judgments.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

A. Students should have done some work with values and value judgments and main points.

B. Students should have a basic understanding of World War II and the origins of the Cold War.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

Have students read the values section of their Guide to Critical Thinking on pages 6-8 of their booklet. You should emphasize the example of analyzing the value judgment on capital punishment on page 7. Write the four steps of analyzing a value judgment on the blackboard:

- Identify the conclusion of the argument.
- Write out the factual part, or question, of the argument.(That is, the part which could be tested by the use of facts.)
- Write out the value part. State it in general terms.
- Decide if there are cases, or examples, when you think the value judgment would not be right.

In the example on page 7 of the Guide the case of putting all defendants into jail is a difficult case for this value judgment. Make sure that students understand the method being used here and the purpose for it.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Have students do the first problem and then go over it as a class. Then have students do the rest of the problems and discuss them as a class.

B. Same as option A, except that after the students fill in the problem sheets individually have them compare their answers in small groups.

V. Altering the Lesson:

Level of the lesson - aimed at average to above-average senior high school students. There isn't any way to modify the lesson to make it less difficult other than explaining the technique of analyzing value judgments before the students try each problem.

Making the lesson more challenging - have students write their own value claims and bring them to class. Then have them exchange problems and analyze them.

VI. Troubleshooting:

You may have to remind students to phrase the value judgments in general terms, and you might have to help some students in thinking of specific cases that would challenge the value judgments.

It is important that students remember that the purpose of bringing up difficult cases to challenge a value judgment is so both people can explore the value judgment more thoroughly, not so one person can embarrass someone else.

CO-2 COLD WAR

ANSWER KEY

These are only suggested answers. Your students will think of many other cases. Remind students that the contrary cases do not justify actions contrary to the value judgment given on the problem sheet. They merely explore the value judgments.

1. Yalta Agreement:

Conclusion: America caused the disagreements about reparations.

Factual: The United States promised $10 billion in reparations to Russia, then broke the Agreement.

Value: Countries should keep their promise.

Case: Suppose country A made a promise in an agreement with country B and then found out that country B broke another part of the agreement.

2. Free elections:

Conclusion: The USSR caused the problems in eastern Europe.

Factual: The USSR promised free elections but didn't hold them.

Value: Countries should keep their promises.

Case: Suppose a country promised to hold free elections but then found that its most feared enemies would be elected.

(Another value judgment is: Free elections are important. This claim could be explored, also.)

3. Lend-lease:

Conclusion: Cutting off lend-lease was justified.

Factual: The USSR didn't appreciate our aid.

Value: Countries are justified in cutting aid to countries which don't appreciate it.

Case: Suppose a country was giving aid to people starving due to a famine. Would it be justified in cutting the aid if the government of the famine-stricken country didn't appreciate it?

4. German attack:

Conclusion: The Russians were justified in taking over eastern Europe.

Factual: The USSR took eastern Europe to prevent future attack.

Value: Countries are justified in taking other countries in order to prevent possible future attack.

Case: Would the largest country in the world be justified in taking over ten other countries to prevent a possible future attack by a very small country?

COLD WAR

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

A. To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 53 of the Teacher's Guide.

B. To teach students about schools of historiography, in this case the traditionalist and revisionist schools on the Cold War.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

A. Students should have a good knowledge of the countries in Europe, especially eastern Europe.

B. Students should have a basic understanding of the Bolshevik revolution of 1917, and of the events of World War II.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

Handout or read the Overview of the Cold War (in the source envelope). Make sure students understand the underlined concepts. It might be a good idea to follow up the Overview with questions like: What is the Cold War? What is a revisionist? On what will this lesson focus? What other issues, not dealt with in this lesson, were involved in the origins of the Cold War? What is self-determination?

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Introduce the lesson, divide the class into two groups and have them debate the proposition: Who primarily caused the Cold War? Cue the students to be critical of evidence presented according to PROP (p. 5 in the Guide to Critical Thinking) and to question whether evidence presented really supports the argument it is supposed to support.

B. Introduce the lesson, have the students read Historian A's view and have them evaluate it according to the MARKER model. Discuss the viewpoint as a class: Are there weaknesses in it? What are its strong points, if any? Then have them read Historian B's viewpoint and evaluate it according to MARKER. Discuss again: What were the strengths and weaknesses of this view? Which of the viewpoints is stronger?

Remind students that there is relevant information included in the problem (in the source envelope). They should use this information and any other information they have on the origins of the Cold War in the R (relevant information) part of their evaluation.

C. Introduce the lesson, have the students read both viewpoints and discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the viewpoints as a class. You could question students to bring out other interesting points, also. The answer key suggests interesting points for analysis.

D. Have students read the two viewpoints and work in groups to decide which viewpoint is stronger and why. Each group then makes a report to the class on its evaluation of the two viewpoints.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at above-average senior high school students. The viewpoints are complex and deal with many abstract concepts.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - focus on one aspect of the debate (for example, the Churchill-Stalin agreement of October 1944 on percentages of influence in eastern Europe) and evaluate it only. Or you could focus only on the main points and evidence of the two viewpoints.

C. Making the lesson more challenging - choose lesson option B. You could follow this up by having students write an essay in support of one of the viewpoints. Or you could have students do further research on questions raised on the origins of the Cold War.

VI. Troubleshooting:

It is important that students understand the many abstract concepts involved in the Cold War before they start reading the viewpoints. Some students may also need help on the chronology of the events. Have a student do a timeline of the significant dates, perhaps from 1941 to 1947.

CO-3 COLD WAR

ANSWER KEY

This sheet contains some suggestions for interesting points to discuss on the two viewpoints:

Historian A:

1. Paragraph 1 - "Naively patriotic" is an ad hominem fallacy (p. 21 in the Guide).

2. Paragraph 2 - This paragraph makes the argument that a country is justified in taking an area as a sphere of influence in order to deter a possible future invasion. Is this justified? In all cases? See the CO-2 lesson for an example of evaluating value positions.

3. Paragraph 3 - Comparison of the two spheres. Are they really similar? Historian B will argue that they are not.

4. Paragraph 4 - The quote by Churchill (Footnote 1) is strong evidence that an agreement was made. However, did Churchill mean that this agreement would set up spheres of influence after World War II?

5. Paragraph 6 - Footnote 4 does not really support the contention that Bulgaria's elections were the freest in the country's history. The evidence says that there was the widest participation. We have to be skeptical that the evidence for "widest participation" comes from Molotov - who has a reason to distort. The New York Times part of the evidence only says the elections were orderly. Elections in which soldiers force people to vote and vote a particular way would both be orderly and have a high participation rate, but wouldn't be free.

6. Paragraph 7 - Footnote 5 is all by secondary sources. How did these historians learn that the Communists were popular and the elections were free?

7. Paragraph 8 - Footnote 8 is strong in that Roosevelt has no reason to distort. However, we need to know more about the context of Roosevelt's remarks. Also, what does he mean by the word "basis?"

8. Paragraph 9 - Roosevelt's remarks may have prompted Stalin to think that American concern for eastern Europe was due to domestic politics in the United States. On the other hand, Roosevelt himself may not have believed what he said. Roosevelt may have used the American voters of eastern European descent as an argument to get Stalin to agree to free elections. The President's main goal may really have been to secure free elections.

9. Paragraph 10 - The summarizing statement that the three countries had reached "a series of agreements and understandings about the Soviet sphere of influence in eastern Europe" is not warranted from the previous arguments. Britain and Russia had an agreement about some countries in eastern Europe, and all three had an agreement on Poland. But the agreement on Poland declared the intent to carry out free elections and the Soviets didn't do that. Several countries taken by the Soviets (such as Czechoslovakia) were not in any agreement.

10. Paragraph 11 - There is no evidence that the possession of the atomic bomb was what caused President Truman to take the positions he did. Further, the comment that the Russians could "go to hell" is taken out of context. There could be any number of reasons why Truman said this. Relevant Information #1 shows a fuller context for the comment.

11. Paragraph 12 - This is a post hoc fallacy (see p. 17 in the Guide). The fact (which is also questionable) that the Soviets tightened their grip on eastern Europe after 1947 does not mean they tightened it because of a stronger American policy. Maybe it was due to the failure of the policy of flexibility in eastern Europe. Moreover, the evidence of flexibility in eastern Europe is sketchy and is challenged by contrary evidence by Historian B.

Historian B

13. Paragraph 1 - "Amazingly" indicates ad hominem arguing (p. 21 in the Guide).

14. Paragraph 2 - The weakness of Germany after World War II doesn't preclude Russian fear of her in the future. Historian B does nothing to prove that the Russians were not concerned about eastern Europe as a buffer to future German attack.

15. Paragraph 3 - Did Churchill (footnote 1) tell Stalin that "controlling interest" only applied to wartime?

16. Paragraph 4 - The argument that the Russians "would have taken eastern Europe no matter what" could be looked at as a false scenario. However, the evidence presented does support the charge.

17. Paragraph 5 - The Soviet signature on the Declaration could be the most important issue but that's a matter of opinion. Historian A has argued that Stalin may have viewed the Declaration as a public relations maneuver to please the eastern European voters in America.

18. Paragraph 7 - These points show a side of the Polish question which Historian A failed to bring out - the fallacy of special pleading (p. 17 in the Guide) by Historian A. On the other hand, Historian B likewise does not deal with the arguments and evidence that the Poles were responsible for the problems.

19. Paragraph 9 - Historian B argues that there are significant differences between the spheres of influence of America and England and the sphere of influence of Russia in eastern Europe. A lot of the weight of this argument rests on the evidence in footnote 11, however. This only presents a study by Americans of political conditions in eastern Europe under the Soviets. We need more direct evidence than this.

20. Paragraph 10 - The appeasement argument is a comparison. Are the two cases similar enough?

COLD WAR

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 53 of the teacher's guide.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

Students should have done some work with conclusions, types of reasoning, words which make value judgments, and fallacies.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

Ask your students: What happened in the Cuban Missile Crisis? Were President Kennedy's actions right? Discuss as a class.

IV. Lesson Options:

Have students answer the questions and discuss as a class.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at average senior high school students.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - skip question 6, and cue the students to look for cue words to help them answer question 2.

C. Making the lesson more challenging - have students follow up the problems by making up their own argument on the missile crisis.

VI. Troubleshooting:

Answers will vary to question 3. Make students support their answers. Some students may have difficulty understanding why argument B commits the appeal to golden mean fallacy (question 6.) See the answer key for a full explanation.

CO-4

COLD WAR

ANSWER KEY

1. D

2. A

3. The comparison seems reasonable. Students might suggest some significant differences, however.

4. A

5. C

6. B This viewpoint argues that Kennedy's position was brilliant, because it was between the extreme choices of war and appeasement.

7. There are many reasonable answers to this question. Some questions are:

   - How much of a threat to the U.S. were the missiles?

   - What were Soviet intentions in placing the missiles in Cuba?

   - How dangerous was the blockade?

CO-5

COLD WAR

LESSON PLAN

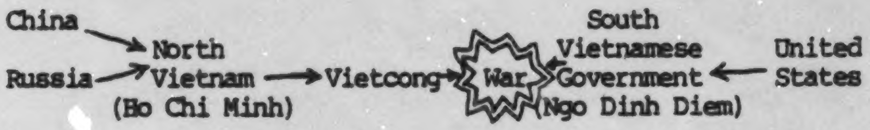
I. Purpose of the Lesson:

To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 53 of the teacher's guide.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

A. Students should have done some work with main points, assumptions, types of reasoning, evidence and relevant information.

B. Students should have a basic knowledge of the Vietnam War, the geography of Southeast Asia, and the names of the two sides and some of the individuals involved. You might want to go over this diagram of the two sides:



III. Introducing the Lesson:

Have students fill in the "Opinion Survey on War" and discuss their responses as a class. Remind the students that we don't know whether or not factual parts of the statements on the sheet are correct. For example, we don't know if the statement in number 1 on "corrupt dictatorships" applies to South Vietnam or not. Thus, the statements might better apply to Vietnam like, "If the South Vietnamese government was corrupt, was it right for the U.S. to support it?"

The value judgments made in these statements and the student responses can be explored further by using the strategy explained in CO-2. The point of the introductory part of the lesson is to show students that the issues involved in the Vietnam War are heavily influenced by value judgments and to get students to examine some of those value judgments.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Introduce the lesson, have the students read the viewpoints and have them fill in the worksheets for the viewpoints.

B. Introduce the lesson, have the students read the viewpoints and briefly discuss as a class the main point of each viewpoint. Then ask the students which viewpoint they agree with, overall. Divide the class on the basis of the student choices on the proposition: "The United States was not wrong to fight in Vietnam, it was wrong not to fight to win the war." Use the students who were undecided to even off the two groups.

C. Introduce the lesson, have the students read the viewpoints and briefly discuss as a class the main point of each viewpoint. Then divide the class into seven groups. Assign each group one of the questions below. The group has ten minutes to make an evaluation of each historian's argument on the question and to write an answer to the question. Then have each group report to the class.

Questions:

- Was the United States right to help the French?
- Were Diem and the United States justified in preventing the 1956 elections from being held?
- What kind of leader was Ho Chi Minh?
- Did the war against Diem's government originate in the South or in the North?
- Did military firepower (including bombing) bring the United States close to victory or cause the American defeat?
- What caused American citizens to oppose the war?
- Should the United States have pushed harder for negotiations and a compromise settlement?

D. Introduce the lesson, have the students read the two viewpoints and have them evaluate the viewpoints according to MARKER (pp. 21-22 in their Guide to Critical Thinking). Have them discuss their analyses in small groups and then discuss as a class. Have the students conclude the lesson by writing an evaluation of one or both of the viewpoints.

V. Altering the Lesson:

Level of the lesson - aimed at average to above-average senior high school students. There are a variety of lesson options, but the amount of information covered makes any of the lesson options fairly challenging.

Making the lesson less difficult - choose lesson options B or C. Or you could pick one of the questions given in lesson option C and discuss only this question. Or you could focus only on the evidence presented in the two viewpoints.

Making the lesson more challenging - choose lesson option D. Have students follow up a lesson with research on one of the questions in lesson option C. What evidence can they find on their assigned question? Have them write a report on their findings, including perhaps three outside citations.

VI. Troubleshooting:

The Vietnam War is a difficult topic for students to understand due to its length (over 25 years), complexity, unfamiliar geographic location, and unfamiliar (and hard to pronounce) names. Make sure the students understand the factual information about the war before you have them evaluate the arguments. Map work will help, as will a time line or a factual quiz. Once you're sure the students have a solid knowledge base you can proceed with the lesson with less student confusion. (Although I think there will always be some student confusion on this complex and difficult topic!)

CO-5

COLD WAR

RELEVANT INFORMATION
(All are quotes from the sources cited.)

1. Dean Acheson, Secretary of State, February 1, 1950. Public Statement:

> The recognition by the Kremlin (Russia) of Ho Chi Minh's Communist movement in Indochina comes as a surprise. The Soviet acknowledgement of this movement should remove any illusions as to the "nationalist" nature of Ho Chi Minh's aims and reveals Ho in his true colors as the mortal enemy of native independence in Indochina.

2. U.S. Consul in Saigon George Abbott, February 12, 1949:

> One peculiar thing about Vietnam Communism is that there has been very little Anti-American propaganda.

3. Robert McNamara, Secretary of Defense, March 26, 1964. Public Statement:

> Thus today in Vietnam we are not dealing with factional disputes or the remnants of a colonial struggle against the French but rather with a major test case of Communism's new strategy..

4. Passing the Torch, Volume 2 of The Vietnam Experience, by Edward Doyle et. al. (1981), p. 146:

> A 1956 presidential ordinance (by Diem) authorizing the arrest and detention in political reeducation centers "of all persons deemed dangerous to the state" inflicted hardship and suffering on tens of thousands of people, Communists and non-Communists alike. It did, however, succeed in decimating the Communist party structure in the South. By the summer of 1956, approximately 90 percent of all (Communist) cells had been smashed in one province; other provinces showed similar results.

5. Roger Hilsman, State Department, Research Memorandum for the Secretary of State, December 3, 1962:

> The extensive use of artillery and aerial bombardment and other apparently excessive and indiscriminate measures by GVN (Government of South Vietnam) military and security forces in attempting to eliminate the Viet Cong have undoubtedly killed many innocent peasants and made many others more willing than before to cooperate with the Viet Cong ....

ANSWER KEY

Historian A

1. There are many possible ways to state the main point. One suggestion is:

   The United States was wrong to get involved in the Vietnam War, a war which destroyed much of Vietnamese society.

2. Comparison reasoning. Many reasonable answers could be given. The author is making the point that Washington was popular because he was the leader of an independence movement. Since Ho was also the leader of an independence movement he must also have been popular. Are there significant differences between the two cases?

3. The evidence in footnote 5.

   P - Primary - it's from that time period
   R - No apparent reason to distort
   O - No other evidence supporting
   P - Private

   The CIA's lack of reason to distort lends credibility to this evidence. It seems that the Vietminh probably would have won the scheduled election. One thing we'd like to know is the context of the evidence.

4. 1956 Election. One possible answer:

   Premise - The Vietminh were promised a nationwide election in the Geneva Agreement, but Diem and the United States prevented the election from taking place.

   Premise - Those who break agreements are wrong.

   Conclusion - The United States and Diem were wrong in the Vietnam War.

5. There are several possible weaknesses in this line of reasoning:

   - Diem and the United States did not sign the agreement on elections.
   - There may be some cases when breaking an agreement is not wrong.

6. Cause and effect reasoning:
   The students must identify the cause (Diem's policies) and the effect (war between the Vietcong and Diem). Then they have to assess how well the author shows the connection between the cause and the effect. Historian A does argue that many South Vietnamese would have hated Diem's policies and implies that rebellion grew out of this hatred. One question we could ask is: How do we know that some other factor (like infiltration from North Vietnam) wasn't more important as a cause of the guerrilla war?

7. Sample reasoning:

   "Large numbers of innocent civilians were killed by American soldiers."

   Evaluation: The evidence used to support this refers to number of civilians killed compared to number of Vietcong killed. "Large numbers" of civilians would have been killed if large numbers of Vietcong were also killed (which is probably true).

8. Possible weakness:

One New York Times article does not provide proof that the Administration "continually lied to the American people."

Historian B

9. Main point: (one possible answer)

The tragedy of the Vietnam War is not that the United States fought, but that it did not fight to win.

10. Reasoning:

Debating

11. Evidence in footnote 1:

It's a secondary source. From where did this author get this idea? We have to see some evidence from the participants at Geneva before we accept this argument.

12. The key to paragraph 5 is the evidence for North Vietnamese control of the war given in footnote 4. If the evidence is weak the argument is weak; if strong the argument is strong. The evidence is primary and there are three statements which corroborate each other. However, defectors may have a reason to distort about their former group.

13. Assumption:

Military leaders are better at plotting strategy in war than are civilian leaders.

14. Proof by evidence:

The students must decide whether the evidence proves the argument made by Historian B. This evidence lends support to the argument that the Vietcong were decimated in the Tet Offensive,but it doesn't prove it. Maybe the Vietcong deliberately reduced the number of their attacks to prepare for another offensive.

15. The evidence for the executions at Hue is strong. Even though there is no corroborating evidence, the captured Vietcong document is primary, private, and its authors have no reason to distort.

16. Argument in paragraph 13:

This is an interesting argument. When a side in a war decides to attack through conventional invasion, does that mean that side was losing its guerrilla war?

17. Relevant information - Possible answers:

#1 favors Historian B; #2 favors Historian A; #3 favors Historian B; #4 gives support to both viewpoints; #5 favors Historian A.

POST-WORLD WAR II ISSUES

IS-1

POST-WORLD WAR II ISSUES

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 53 of the teacher's guide.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

A. Students should have some basic knowledge of Senator Joseph McCarthy and McCarthyism.

B. Students should have done some work on conclusions, evidence, words which make value judgments, and unstated assumptions.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

No special introduction.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Have the students answer the questions and then discuss as a class.

B. Have the students answer the questions in small groups, then discuss as a class.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at below-average to average senior high school students.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - skip questions 4 and 6.

C. Making the lesson more challenging - ask students to identify and evaluate the reasoning used in argument A. Or have students make up their own problems on McCarthyism.

VI. Troubleshooting:

Some students may be confused on unstated assumptions. You might want to go over the four steps in finding an unstated assumption (pp. 10-11 in the Guide, but more clearly explained on the handout "Ideas for Posters," the first sheet in the source envelope).

POST-WORLD WAR II ISSUES

ANSWER KEY

A. McCarthyism as campaign issue:

1. C

2. D

3. This is strong evidence, since McCarthy has no reason to distort what he says here. We would like to see the actual quotes and the context in which they were said, however.

4. Assumptions: (Two reasonable answers)

   a. Issues discussed at campaign meetings are discussed as campaign issues.

   b. One month is not long enough to carefully study a complex issue.

B. McCarthy hurt careers:

5. B

6. Assumption (one answer): Some of the people who were fired were not Communists. (McCarthy's attacks are not needless if all of the people were actually Communists.)

POST-WORLD WAR II ISSUES

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 53 of the teacher's guide.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

A. Students should have done some work on conclusions, types of reasoning, and fallacies.

B. Students should have some basic knowledge of the cases "Plessy v. Ferguson" and "Brown v. Board of Education."

III. Introducing the Lesson:

Ask your students: What was the decision in the "Plessy v. Ferguson" case of 1896? What were the issues and what was decided in the 1954 "Brown v. Board of Education" case? Discuss as a class.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Have the students answer the questions and then discuss their answers as a class.

B. Have the students answer the questions individually, and discuss their answers in small groups. Then discuss as a class.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at below-average to average senior high school students.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - write the cue words for the types of reasoning on the chalkboard or on a poster and review the cue words before starting the lesson. (Some cue words are shown on the handout "Ideas for Posters" which is the first sheet in the source envelope.)

C. Making the lesson more challenging - have the students evaluate the reasoning given. Or have them make up arguments from the 1950's involving other fallacies.

VI. Troubleshooting:

Some students may have difficulty with question 6. Have a student who understands the answer explain why the argument commits the fallacy of Appeal to Irrelevant Outcome.

IS-2

POST-WORLD WAR II ISSUES

ANSWER KEY

A. "Brown v. Board of Education:"

1. E
2. C
3. B
4. C
5. B

B. Professor Clemens:

6. E

IS-3 POST-WORLD WAR II ISSUES
LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

A. To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 53 of the teacher's guide.

B. To help students to interpret statistical information in order to evaluate historical arguments.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

Students should understand the concepts of social class, mobility, white collar work, and blue collar work.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

Ask your students questions about social class, mobility, white collar and blue collar occupations. Make sure students understand these concepts.

Pass out the overview and go over it with the class. Make sure students understand what to do.

Go over the tables in the relevant information. Table 1 deals with housing segregation. If all the Italians lived in one neighborhood that would be 100. If they were spread out evenly throughout the city, then the number would be very low, say 11.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Introduce the lesson, have the students read the viewpoints and tables and information (in the source envelope), and have them fill in the chart at the bottom of the overview sheet. Discuss their answers as a class.

B. Same as A, but have the students discuss their answers in small groups.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at average to above-average senior high school students.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - cue the students to look at specific tables or information for each of the viewpoints. For example, tell the students to look at Table 4 for Historian A. See the answer key for suggestions on which tables and information are relevant to which viewpoints.

C. Making the lesson more challenging - have the students write another viewpoint from the tables, or use other statistics on another topic to write a viewpoint.

VI. Troubleshooting:

Some students may find the amount of information in the tables overwhelming. Use the suggestion in "Making the lesson less difficult" on cuing the students.

IS-3
POST-WORLD WAR II ISSUES

ANSWER KEY

Suggested answers:

Historian A's argument is weakened by Table 4, which shows that Northern blacks did no better than those from the South.

Historian B's argument is strengthened by information 10 and 12. None of the information weakens this view.

Historian C's argument is weakened by Table 2, which shows that blacks went to school as much as whites and that blacks went to school more than some immigrant groups but got worse jobs.

Historian D's view is weakened by Tables 1 and 5. These tables show that a highly geographically segregated group (Jewish immigrants) did well occupationally, while a largely geographically non-segregated group (Irish immigrants) did poorly. Thus, geographic segregation couldn't be a deciding factor in job mobility.

Historian E's view is weakened by Tables 9, 11, and 2. Tables 9 and 11 cast doubt upon, but do not disprove, the assumption that blacks had larger families. If blacks had fewer children in 1960 and if the infant mortality for blacks was higher in 1900, then it is questionable whether blacks had larger families. Table 2 shows that blacks went to school as much as whites but got worse jobs.

Historian F's view is weakened by Tables 2, 3, and 6 and information 13 and 14. Tables 3 and 6 show that in 1880 blacks had more stable families than Irish but got worse jobs. Information 13 and 14 show that in 1960 blacks had the same percentage of broken families as whites, but got worse jobs. Table 2 makes us question the argument that family instability leads to lower educational achievement. Why did blacks stay in school longer if they didn't do as well?

Historian G's view is weakened by Tables 4 and 10 and by information 12. Table 4 shows that blacks came from many backgrounds. Even blacks from overseas did poorly in the job market compared to non-blacks. Foreign blacks who did not experience slavery had different cultures from American blacks. The increase in semi-skilled jobs for blacks in 1940 suggests that when labor was needed (as in World War II) then black culture did not stand in the way of blacks getting jobs.

IS-4

POST-WORLD WAR II ISSUES

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 53 of the teacher's guide.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

Students should have done some work on conclusions, words which make value judgments, fallacies, and types of reasoning.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

No special introduction.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Have the students answer the questions and then discuss as a class.

B. Have the students answer the questions individually, and discuss in small groups. Then discuss as a class.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at below-average to average senior high school students.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - skip questions 3 and 7.

C. Making the lesson more challenging - have the students make up one problem of their own on the 1950's or 1960's. Tell them to try to include a fallacy, if possible.

VI. Troubleshooting:
There are no cue words in problem B to indicate the comparison reasoning (question 5). You might have to write the argument out to show the comparison.

POST-WORLD WAR II ISSUES

ANSWER KEY

A. Eisenhower:

1. A
2. C
3. B

B. River pollution:

4. D
5. A Discuss: To what extent are the two cases similar?

C. Senator Welihan:

6. C
7. E

POST-WORLD WAR II ISSUES

LESSON PLAN

I. Purpose of the Lesson:

To develop students' critical thinking skills as shown on the chart on page 53 of the teacher's guide.

II. Student Preparation for the Lesson:

Students should have done some work on conclusions and fallacies.

III. Introducing the Lesson:

A. Tell your students that more women in America are working today than earlier in the twentieth century. Ask: What caused this change? What are the effects of women working? After discussing their hypotheses, have the students turn to the problem sheet in the student booklet and distribute the relevant information sheet.

B. No special introduction - start with the problem sheet.

IV. Lesson Options:

A. Have the students answer the questions and then discuss their answers as a class.

B. Same as option A but have students discuss their answers in small groups before discussing as a class.

V. Altering the Lesson:

A. Level of the lesson - aimed at below-average to average senior high school students.

B. Making the lesson less difficult - tell the students that for question 6 there is a weakness in the argument and the weakness is one of the fallacies in question 3.

C. Making the lesson more challenging - have your students make up other arguments based on the tables in the relevant information (or from other information they can gather) and then have the students evaluate the arguments.

VI. Troubleshooting: Arguments by students could be evaluated for fallacies or weak lines of reasoning.

POST-WORLD WAR II ISSUES

ANSWER KEY

A. Women working and divorce:

1. B

2. Tables 1 and 3. Note that these tables only show that the premise is true (More women are working and divorce is higher than ever before). The tables do not show that the whole argument is strong.

3. C. It is at least as likely that the increased divorce rate caused more women to work.

4. Information that women's participation in the labor force significantly increased before the divorce rate increased. Evidence showing that particular divorces were due to the wives working. Can this type of evidence be found?

B. Women working and smaller families:

5. B

6. This argument is weak in the same way that Argument A is weak. It commits the Correlation as Cause Fallacy (p. 18). Without more information we could as easily conclude that more women working led to smaller families. We need more information that would show the connection between the supposed cause and effect. A comparison of tables 1 and 3 also shows that the correlation is not uniform. In 1950 and 1960 the number of births was higher, while more women were working. This suggests that other factors are involved.

C. Women working and equality:

7. Table 2 supports this argument.

TEST QUESTIONS

IDEAS FOR USING WORLD POWER TEST QUESTIONS

The obvious way to use Section II "Analyzing an Argument" is to have students answer the questions which follow the reading. A more difficult test question would be to give the students the viewpoint and tell them to evaluate it in an essay answer. You might want to cue the students to analyze the argument according to MARKER (pp. 21-22 in the student booklet), or you might want to give more specific guidelines (such as, "identify one unstated assumption, evaluate two types of reasoning, and evaluate—according to PROP—one piece of evidence"). You can get an idea of some possible analyses by looking at the answer key to the test questions provided for Section II.

Remember that worksheets and viewpoints which you do not use in class can also be used as test questions.

WORLD POWER

ANSWER KEY - TEST QUESTIONS

Section I:

A. Debate:

1. A

2. C The Bible says we shouldn't fight. As a Christian country, we should follow the Bible. Therefore, we shouldn't have fought.

3. C John attacks George by belittling him - "you don't really believe they didn't, do you?"

4. A (p. 20 in the Guide.)

B. World War I and Embargo:

5. A

6. B

C. Submarines and World War I:

7. C

8. D (p. 17 in the Guide.)

D. Interpretations of World War I:

9. E

10. C

11. C

E. Theodore Roosevelt:

12. Premise - Theodore Roosevelt helped make our country more powerful.

13. Premise - A president who helps our country become more powerful is a great president.

14. Conclusion - Theodore Roosevelt was a great president.

Section II

15. C
16. A
17. A
18. C
19. D

20. A
21. B
22. Are the two cases similar enough to justify the conclusion?
23. B
24. C

DEPRESSION ERA

ANSWER KEY - TEST QUESTIONS

A. New Deal Programs were radical:

1. A

2. B

3. C

B. Gold Standard:

4. A

5. B

C. Communist Conspiracy:

6. E - The conclusion is: The New Deal was not a communist conspiracy. Or: Your theory is wrong.

7. E

D. Recovery from Great Depression:

8. A

9. Sample (of statistics); Cause and Effect (the New Deal "helped"); Proof by Examples (the statistics). It is not comparison or debating.

10. C - The statistics indicate recovery. They do not indicate that the New Deal caused the recovery. This historian would have to show the connection between the New Deal and these improved statistics.

E. Reason for Great Depression:

11. A

12. C

13. B

F. Social Welfare Programs:

14. A

15. C

16. D

17. B

18. B

ANSWER KEY - TEST QUESTIONS

(There are several possible correct answers to some of these questions. What follows are some suggested answers.)

Section I

A. Roosevelt and Truman Policies:

1. C

2. B

3. A

B. Byrnes Speech:

4. B

5. Even the US recognized the Soviet security interests in eastern Europe.

6. It's public.

7. No reason to distort.

8. Primary . Also,the Secretary of State is an important American official.

C. Bohlen Memo:

9. A or B

10. A (see the first sentence in number 11.) or B (see the second sentence).

11. It's a primary source by a key person in the US Government, so he shows one American official's beliefs by his statement. On the other hand, he is only one person. We should see more people's beliefs before we make a conclusion.

12. B

13. Bohlen only shows what US officials believed, not what the Russians actually did.

D. Continuation of Bohlen Memo:

14. D

E. Stalin Statement:

15. B

16. This is strong evidence. Stalin has no obvious reason to distort, and as a dictator his statements represent Soviet policy to an important extent.

F. Coalition Governments:

17. C or D

G. Communists in eastern European Governments:

18. A or B

19. Propaganda - The Soviets may have wanted the governments in eastern Europe to look independent, while the Communists actually controlled those governments.

20. B

21. It is based on only a few pieces of evidence. There may be other evidence which would lead to a different interpretation.

Section II:

22. D

23. C

24. B

25. E

Section III:

A. Stalin-Churchill Deal:

26. Conclusion - Stalin was justified in controlling Rumania and Bulgaria.

27. Factual - Stalin stuck to the deal.

28. Value judgment - Countries which stick to deals are justified in whatever they do as part of that deal.

29. Case - Hitler and Stalin made a deal in 1939 to divide up Poland. Stalin stuck to the deal. However, that does not justify Stalin in taking over part of Poland.

B. El Salvador:

30. C

31. D

32. A

C. 33. N - It isn't relevant to economic aid to needy countries.

34. A

35. B

36. B

37. B

38. E

ANSWER KEY - TEST QUESTIONS

A. Reporter and Astronaut:

1. A

2. C

3. A

4. Used - This word suggests poorer quality than a new vehicle. If the first flight was extremely wearing on the spacecraft, then this usage of the word "used" would be satisfactory. If, on the other hand, the flight did not wear down the spacecraft much, then "used" is not in the argument in the proper sense.

5. Are the two cases (a spaceship and an automobile) similar enough to justify the conclusion?

B. Democrats and Wars:

6. B

7. B

8. D

C. Private Schools:

9. D

10. A

11. Students should either explain that the argument is strong because the two cases are similar, or that it is weak because the two cases are not similar.

SOURCE ENVELOPE

Booklet #4

Source Envelope

This envelope contains additional materials that can be used with Booklet #4. The materials in the envelope have unlimited photocopying rights for classroom use only. The following sources are contained in the envelope:

1. Outline of the Guide to Critical Thinking - students could use this as an easier reference to the parts of the Guide.
2. Introductory Worksheets - these are indispensable to introducing and helping students learn the basic skills of the program.
3. Remedial Problems - these can be used for a student who is behind the rest of the class on a specific skill.
4. Worksheets and Handouts for the Various Lessons - these are the basic handouts to supplement the student booklet.
5. Test Questions - these can be used to evaluate student mastery of the skills taught.

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Outline of the Guide to Critical Thinking

Introduction

Arguments are made up of three parts:

1. Evidence
2. Values
3. Logic

I. Evidence

A. There are three sources of evidence;

   1. Statements by witnesses
   2. Documents
   3. Objects

B. In an argument there are three possibilities regarding evidence:

   1. No evidence
   2. Factual information (sourceless evidence)
   3. Evidence

C. When actual evidence is given, it can be judged according to these four factors:

   P - Primary or secondary source?

   R - Reason to distort?

   O - Other evidence supporting this evidence?

   P - Private or public statement?

D. There are other factors as well in judging evidence (see "Guide" for these).

II. Values

A. Values are conditions which the author of an argument believes are good (Money, success).

B. Values in arguments:

   1. Authors' values are revealed through words which make value judgments. Words such as:

      a. Good/bad
      b. Should/should not
      c. Right/wrong

   2. You can examine a value judgment made by an author by: (see the "Guide" for examples)

      a. Separating the argument into the factual and value parts.
      b. Stating the value part in general terms.
      c. Raising specific cases to see if the value is right in all cases.

III. Logic or Reasoning

A. Logic or reasoning is the process of reaching a conclusion on the basis of information or experience.

B. Main points and conclusions:

1. Main points are what the authors of longer (more than one paragraph) arguments are trying to prove, while conclusions are what the authors of shorter (one paragraph or less) arguments are trying to prove.

2. You find the conclusion or main point by:

   a. Asking yourself, "What is the author trying to convince me of?"

   b. Looking for the place to put "Therefore."

3. Cue words:

   Conclusions

   therefore
   hence
   so
   thus
   then
   shows that
   consequently

   Premises

   because
   for
   since
   suppose that
   given that
   if

C. Words:

1. Watch for value words and vague or undefined words.

2. Fallacies involved with words:

   a. Jargon
   b. Equivocation

D. Assumptions and Inferences:

1. An assumption is something which is not stated but which is taken for granted by the author.

2. An inference is a conclusion that goes beyond the evidence upon which it is based.

E. Types of Reasoning Used in History

1. There are five types of reasoning. Most arguments are a combination of several of the types.

2. Types:

   a. Comparison (Analogy) - compares two cases, and reasons that what is true for one will be true for the other.
   b. Sample (Generalization) - reasons that what is true for part of a group (the sample) is true for all or most of that group.
   c. Cause and Effect - argues that something caused something else.
   d. Proof - uses evidence or logic (authority, or eliminating alternatives) to prove the argument.
   e. Debating - refers to another argument on the same topic and shows why this other viewpoint is wrong or partially wrong.

F. Key Questions:

1. These help you judge how good the reasoning is.
2. Key questions:
    a. Comparison: Are the two cases compared similar enough to make the conclusion a good one?
    b. Sample: Is the sample good enough to make the conclusion a good one?
    c. Cause and effect: Does the author really show the connection between the cause and the effect?
    d. Proof: Does the evidence or the argument (like eliminating alternatives) make the conclusion a good one?
    e. Debating: Does the author give good enough reasons for disproving the other argument?

G. Fallacies in History:

1. A fallacy is an error in logic.
2. Fallacies:
    a. Comparison Fallacies - No specific fallacies
    b. Sample Fallacies:
        1. Unrepresentative Sample (or Hasty Generalization)
        2. Stereotyping (or Composition or Division)
        3. Special Pleading
    c. Cause and Effect Fallacies:
        1. Single Cause
        2. Preceding Event as Cause
        3. Correlation as Cause
    d. Proof Fallacies:
        1. Irrelevant Proof
        2. Negative Proof
        3. Numbers
        4. Appeal to Authority
        5. Appeal to the Golden Mean
        6. False Scenario
        7. Either-Or
        8. Begging the Question

e. Debating Fallacies:

1. Attacking the Arguer (Ad Hominem)
2. Straw Man
3. Appeal to Irrelevant Outcome

IV. Models for Analyzing Arguments:

A. Written arguments - MARKER

M - Main point
A - Assumptions (and values and value judgments)
R - Types of Reasoning
K - Key Questions (and fallacies)
E - Evidence
R - Relevant information (and common sense)

B. Films - PIPE

P - Point of view
I - Inferences
P - Persuasive techniques
E - Evidence

IN-1 Introduction
The Bermuda Triangle

The Bermuda Triangle (an area roughly from Bermuda, southwest to Florida, then east out into the Atlantic, and then northwest back to Bermuda) is one of the most dangerous and strange spots on earth. The number of ships lost in the Triangle is staggering, starting back in the 1600's right up to today. In recent years an average of about 100 ships and many airplanes are lost each year in the area. It is common knowledge among commercial pilots and ship captains that the Triangle is dangerous.

It is what has happened to these boats and planes which is especially mysterious, however, and which gives the area its name as the "Devil's Triangle." For example, the boat, the "Hollyhock," was off the coast of Florida when it suddenly lost radio contact with the coast. Later, it picked up California on the radio. Then it spotted land on its monitors where there was no land! The "Hollyhock" disappeared without a trace.

Another boat, the "Witchcraft," was at buoy number 7 only two miles off the coast of Miami admiring the lights of the city. The owner of the boat radioed to the Coast Guard to come out because the boat was taking on water. However, it was in no serious danger because it had built-in floatation chambers. When the Coast Guard arrived at buoy number 7, the "Witchcraft" had vanished.

Airplanes, too, have had bizarre incidents. The "Star Tiger" was flying over the Devil's Triangle when suddenly radio contact was lost. No wreckage of the plane was ever found.

In 1963 two KC-135 jet tankers disappeared 300 miles southwest of Bermuda. What caused these planes to go down?

Probably the most incredible incident was Flight 19 from Fort Lauderdale, Florida on December 5, 1945. Five Avenger aircraft took off that day on a regular training flight for the Navy. Pilot Cosner did not go on the flight. Why not? Commander Taylor seemed hesitant. Did he have the same peculiar feeling that Cosner had? The flight was routine at first, but then the planes did not request to land after 15 minutes. The pilots seemed confused and their instruments were doing weird things. The air base had radio contact with the planes and heard the pilots say things such as "which way is west?" or refer to things such as "upside down" and "white water." The planes kept changing directions, almost flying in circles. Then--silence. A search plane was sent out, and it, too, disappeared. The Navy has kept the incident quiet. And the Navy hasn't out-and-out denied the story as authors have showed it.

It is difficult to explain what happens in the Devil's Triangle. Some people believe that there is a magnetic field which throws everything off. Others believe it has to do with the lost continent of Atlantis. Whatever the cause of the situation, it is worth thinking twice before traveling through this area, one of the strangest spots on our earth.

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IN-1 Introduction
The Bermuda Triangle
Relevant Information

1. The "Star Tiger's" flight was at night in poor weather.

2. It is not unheard of, although it is infrequent, for boats out in the ocean to pick up distant areas on the radio.

3. Rain clouds can sometimes look like land on radar.

4. The "Witchcraft" was out in bad weather.

5. There was no mention that the "Witchcraft" was near buoy 7, according to Coast Guard reports. One author estimated the location by comparing several reports.

6. It would have taken the Coast Guard about 20 minutes to get to where the "Witchcraft" was.

7. In 20 minutes a boat can drift about 1 mile in calm seas.

8. It is extremely difficult to find the wreckage of a plane or boat in the ocean, even on a clear day.

9. Debris found in one spot in the ocean contained the serial numbers of both KC-135 jet tankers. Some observers say this indicates that the two planes collided in the air.

10. The editor of Aviation Week stated that based on a statistical analysis of the number of accidents in an area compared with the number of flights in that area, the Bermuda Triangle is one of the safest spots in the world. It is a popular area with pilots.

11. An Avenger aircraft will sink into the ocean roughly 45 seconds after splashing down.

12. Two men who were in the radio tower in Fort Lauderdale at the time of Flight 19 do not recall the pilots of the Avenger saying, "which way is west?" or "upside down" or "white water". These two men say the planes were definitely lost.

13. Commander Taylor of Flight 19 radioed, "If we fly north, then east, we'll get home." He also mentioned being over the Keys (islands). He may have thought he was over the Florida Keys, when actually he was over the Grand Keys in the Atlantic. His course of north, then east would have taken the planes toward the middle of the Atlantic.

14. At the time that radio contact was lost with the plane sent to search for Flight 19, people on the coast saw an explosion at the location of the plane.

15. About 100 ships are lost each year in the Bermuda Triangle out of 10,000 distress calls made to the Coast Guard.

16. According to the Coast Guard, many pleasure boat owners don't know what they're doing in the ocean. For example, when the Coast Guard told one owner to plot a course toward an island,

16. (continued)

the owner said he couldn't find it on his map. When the Coast Guard asked him what map he was using, he said he was looking at the world atlas.

17. Each author who writes about the Bermuda Triangle describes a triangle of a different size and shape from the other authors.

18. The writer of the Bermuda Triangle article is an author of books on popular subjects, such as mysterious and bizarre phenomena.

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Worksheet - Evidence

Historian A

"The city government was one of the most corrupt in recent history. The people have really suffered because of the corruption."

Historian B

"The city government under Mayor Mello was one of the most corrupt in recent history. Four government workers said that corruption was widespread."

Historian C

"The city government under Mayor Mello was one of the most corrupt in recent history. Over $20 million was stolen on one project alone."

Historian D

"The city government under Mayor Mello was one of the most corrupt in recent history. Six workers of the Mello government were convicted of corruption."

What is the evidence in the four viewpoints above ?

A - No evidence.
B - Factual Information (sourceless evidence).
C - Evidence.

_______ 1. Historian A

_______ 2. Historian B

_______ 3. Historian C

_______ 4. Historian D

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IN-3C Introduction
Evidence

You are now a historian trying to figure out who stabbed John Jones in the corridor at Hamilton-Wenham, but in 1940, not today. As a historian, you have the following pieces of information (evidence):

A. There was an investigation by police into the alleged murder of John Jones.

1. The police concluded that he was murdered by stab wounds.

2. The police had three suspects: 1. Clarence Kelly, 2. Slim Stowell, and 3. Luke Levin. All three were in the corridor within 10 feet of John Jones when he was murdered.

3. The police felt they had enough evidence to prosecute Luke Levin.

B. There was a trial of Luke Levin for the alleged murder of John Jones. In the trial:

4. Luke's girlfriend said he was a good person and he never would kill anyone.

5. A teacher testified he opened the door of his room and entered the corridor as soon as he heard John Jones scream. No one could have moved, and no one was moving when he looked into the corridor. John was lying on the floor while Luke, Clarence, and Slim were standing within 10 feet, looking at him. Luke was closest to John.

6. Clarence testified that he didn't do it, but he was looking the other way so he doesn't know whether Luke or Slim did it.

7. Slim testified that he didn't do it, that Luke did it.

8. Luke testified that he didn't do it, that Slim did it.

9. Witness A, who didn't know any of the men, said he heard John say "No, Luke, no" right before the murder.

10. Witness B, who was 35 feet away and who didn't know any of the men, said he saw Luke stab John.

11. The knife was shown to have Luke's fingerprints on it, and only Luke's.

12. Both Luke and Slim had knives with them on that day, according to Clarence.

13. The police found a knife on Slim at the scene of the murder, as well as the knife in John. No other weapons were found.

14. An IOU note was produced at the trial showing that John owed Luke $300, which was due to be paid three days before the murder.

15. Witness C testified that Slim did not like John.

16. Witness D, 50 feet away, testified that she saw Luke stab John.

17. Witness E, in another part of the building, not within sight of the murder scene, says he's sure Luke killed John.

18. A letter was presented at the trial, by Luke's girlfriend, to her mother in which she says Luke hated John.

C. The jury found Luke guilty of murder.

1. As a historian, do you think the jury was right in its verdict? Why?

2. Give one example for each type of evidence presented. Just write the number of the evidence on the line:

_______ A. Statements by witnesses

_______ B. Documents (written information)

_______ C. Objects

3. Evaluate (judge) the following evidence according to the factors (criteria) given.

Factors	#4	#7	#10	#11	#14	#17	#18
1. Witness has reason to lie?							
2. Public or private statement?							
3. Primary or secondary?							
4. Other evidence showing the same thing?							

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IN-4 Introduction

A. "The colonists were right to take the Indian's land, since the Indians weren't using it right."

   1. General value statement: ("It's all right to take what someone else owns if they aren't using it right.")

   2. Other examples: (It's all right for me to steal your car because you aren't using it right.")

B. "The colonists should not have hung the alleged witches because they really didn't have any good evidence that they were witches."

   3. General value statement:

   4. Other examples:

C. "The colonists should not have revolted from England because they could have made more money under England."

   5. General value statement:

   6. Other examples:

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Worksheet-Conclusions

1. When the bell rings it's time for lunch, 2. and the bell just rang. 3. So, it's time for lunch.

______1. The conclusion is:
A. 1 C. 3
B. 2 D. It's not stated.

1. Mary must be able to swim better than John. 2. She's on the swim team and John isn't, 3. and people who are on swim teams swim better than people who aren't on swim teams.

______2. The conclusion is:
A. 1 C. 3
B. 2 D. It's not stated.

1. Mom, since I've passed all my tests this week, 2. I should be able to go out with the guys.

______3. The conclusion is:
A. 1 C. Passing tests is good. (Notice cue word
B. 2 D. It's not stated. "since" for premise)

1. Our hockey team won, 2. because we have the better team.

______4. The conclusion is:
A. 1 C. Your hockey team stinks.
B. 2 D. We'll beat you again next year, too.

1. When you think about it you'll realize which day is the best for lunches in the cafeteria. 2. You can't beat the salad lunches on Tuesdays. 3. They are good for you. 4. They are low in calories. 5. The insects you find in the lettuce are high in protein. 6. Even the plates are great on Tuesdays.

______5. The conclusion is:

A. You should think about the lunches.

B. Tuesdays are best for lunches in the cafeteria.

C. The salad lunches are low in calories and high in protein.

D. None of the above.

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WORKSHEET - ASSUMPTIONS

"Even if I have a head start in running to the beach, you'll get there first."

_______ 1. What is an assumption in this argument?
A. The beach is a long way from where we are.
B. You won't take a short cut.
C. You run faster than me.
D. I run faster than you.

"Beth is older than Roger, so she must be older than Marie, also."

_______ 2. What is an assumption in this argument?
A. Beth is older than Marie.
B. Roger is as old as or older than Marie.
C. Beth is older than Roger.
D. Beth and Marie are cement heads.

"The Rolling Stones are a better group than The Clash, because their music is more acid rock."

_______ 3. What is the assumption?
A. The Clash should not play acid rock.
B. Groups which play acid rock are better.
C. The Stones should not play acid rock.
D. The Stones are a better group than The Clash.

"Fred must be a good mechanic, since he works for the Shell Station downtown."

4. What is the assumption? Write it out. (Hint: Look at the examples above for help.)

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WORKSHEET-TYPES OF REASONING

ANSWERS:

A. Proof - Mom, I mowed the grass so I can go out.

B. Cause and Effect - Why is Jenny sick? (ham sandwich).

C. Sample (Generalization) - Is it a bag full of paperclips?

D. Comparison (Analogy) - Harry is a better driver because his time is lower.

E. Debating - Harry's argument is weak because . . . (Refers to another argument).

_______ 1. Fred drank four gallons of water before he ran in the Boston Marathon and he finished the race. So, if I want to finish this race I should drink four gallons of water, too.

_______ 2. The ten kids I asked all said they liked the dance, so I think we can say that most of the kids who went liked the dance.

_______ 3. The situation today is just like the situation right before the Great Depression of 1929. So it looks like we're going to have another depression.

_______ 4. Karen said most of the kids didn't like the dance. But she didn't even ask anyone else what they thought. So how does she really know?

_______ 5. There are three reasons why the U. S. had a Civil War in 1861. Slavery, abolitionism, and economic differences between the North and the South led to the War.

_______ 6. Other historians have said that the U. S. should not have become involved in the War of 1812. These historians are wrong, because they've overlooked the tremendous manufacturing gains the U. S. made from the War.

_______ 7. John and Christine were the only two people who could possibly have bought the refrigerator. But John was away on vacation all summer, so Christine must have bought it.

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IN-8 Introduction

Worksheet - Key Questions

A. Comparisons: (Key Question: Are the two cases compared similar enough to make the conclusion a good one?)

________ 1. Which of the following comparisons seems to be the strongest?

A. Harry did all his homework in history class, and he got an "A" in the course. So, if I do all my homework I should be able to get an "A", also. After all, I have always received the same grades as Harry in the same courses, including history, and I'll have the same teacher for this history course.

B. Harry did all his homework in history class, and he got an "A" in the course. So, if I do all my homework I should be able to get an "A", also. After all, in some courses I have received about the same grades as Harry, in fact higher in Math and Science, and my intelligence tests show I'm as smart as he is.

C. Harry did all his homework in history class, and he got an "A" in the course. So, if I do all my homework I should be able to get an "A", also. After all, I'm just as smart as Harry, and I've done as well as he has in French class. Also, I know as much about history as Harry does.

________ 2. Which of the following comparisons below seems to be the strongest?

A. Staci drank three glasses of water before she ran in the Boston Marathon, and she finished the race. So if I want to finish this 6-mile race I should drink three glasses of water. After all, Staci and I wear the same kind of running shoes and have the same length hair.

B. Staci used the Oregon State training program before she ran in a 6-mile race, and she finished the race. So, if I try the Oregon State training program I should finish the marathon coming up this year. After all, Staci and I are about the same size and weight.

C. Staci drank three glasses of water before she ran in the Boston Marathon, and she finished the race. So I should drink three glasses of water before running this marathon. After all, the temperature is the same today as it was in the Boston Marathon, and Staci and I are about the same size and weight, and have trained about the same.

B. Sample: (Key Question: Is the sample good enough to make the conclusion a good one?)

________ 3. Which of the following samples seems to give the strongest support for the statement: "Most of the students enjoyed the dance."

Worksheet - Key Questions

A. Five students were asked.

B. 20 students were asked.

C. 30 students were asked.

D. 40 students were asked.

_________ 4. Which sample below seems to give the strongest support for the statement: "Mayor Anderson is popular in the city".

A. 450 people were asked at the country club, which is located on the east side of the city.

B. 120 people were asked in proportion to their numbers in the city. For example, 50% of the people asked were women because 50% of the people in the city are women.

C. 100 of the city workers were asked. People were asked from each department in the city government: parks, water, taxation, police, fire, and so forth. The people were asked on their lunch hours.

D. 150 people were asked at Frumptown University, located in the downtown section of the city.

E. 180 people were called at home at random on the telephone, over the course of five mornings.

_________ 5. Which of the following samples seems to give the strongest support for the statement: "Slaves had a short life expectancy (they didn't live to be very old, on average)."

A. A check of the 1850 census for the age of death of slaves in all the Southern States.

B. A check of the records from one plantation over 50 years for the age at death of the slaves.

C. A check of plantation and legal records of three Southern States (Virginia, Georgia, and Louisiana) from 1700 - 1850 for the age at death of slaves.

D. A statement by an abolitionist (someone opposed to slavery) that slaves had a short life expectancy.

C. Cause and Effect: (Key Question: Does the author really show the connection between the cause and the effect?)

_________ 6. Which of the following statements makes the best connection between the cause and the effect?

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Worksheet - Key Questions

________ 6. (continued)

A. Missy was sick because she ate meat that was spoiled. That meat has been in the refrigerator for at least a week and then was left on the table for two hours.

B. Missy was sick because she ate meat that was spoiled. A blood test taken at the hospital showed that she was suffering from food poisoning from rotten meat. Several people said that the only thing she had had for lunch that day was the meat.

C. Missy was sick because she ate meat that was spoiled. Fourteen other people who were at the picnic who ate the meat also became sick.

D. Missy was sick because she ate meat that was spoiled. The meat smelled awful, and Missy has a weak stomach.

________ 7. Which of the following statements makes the best connection between the cause and the effect?

A. One important cause for World War I was the system of entangling alliances in Europe. There had been alliances in Europe for many years, but after 1900 all the major countries were involved in them. The Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente ensured that when a disagreement arose a war was sure to result.

B. One important cause for World War I was the system of entangling alliances in Europe. France, England and Russia were allied in the Triple Entente, while Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy were involved in the Triple Alliance. With all those countries involved war could hardly be avoided.

C. One important cause for World War I was the system of entangling alliances in Europe. With six major countries involved in two alliance systems, a disagreement between any two could lead to war. This is what happened. When Austria- Hungary and Russia opposed each other over Serbia, Germany, as Austria-Hungary's ally, got involved and attacked Russia's ally, France. Since England was also allied, she declared war, also. Now all the major countries were at war.

D. Proof: (Key Question: Does the evidence or the argument make the conclusion a good one?)

________ 8. Which of the following best proves the conclusion: "Medical care in the U.S. is improving."

A. A government study showing that doctors' salaries

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________ 8. (A, continued)

are increasing.

B. A government study showing that hospitals costs are increasing.

C. A government study showing that hospital costs are decreasing.

D. A government study showing that there are fewer complications than before in serious operations.

________ 9. Which of the following best proves the conclusion: "The Life expectancy of the average American increased in the 1800's."

A. A government study in 1850 that Americans were living longer than in 1800.

B. A government study in 1890 that Americans were spending more time and money on leisure time.

C. A government study in 1890 that Americans were living longer than in 1800.

D. A government study in 1900 that the life expectancy of American women had increased faster than that of American men.

E. Debating: (Key Question: Does the author give good enough reasons for disproving the other argument?)

John and Marie are arguing about which marching band is better.

John: "The Goffstown High Band is better than the Laconia Band because the music Goffstown plays is louder and the drills it does are more precise."

________ 10. Which argument by Marie gives the best reasons for disproving John's argument?

A. John's argument is wrong because he cannot say for sure that one band's music is louder or that one's drills are more precise. He was at the refreshment stand when the bands were playing, so he would get a distorted impression of the music and drills.

B. John's argument is wrong because he is a member of the Goffstown Band.

C. John's argument is wrong because the loudness of the music and the precision of the drills are not the two most

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Worksheet - Key Questions

________10. (C. continued)

important factors in evaluating a band. Rather, the quality of the music and the drills is what counts.

D. John's argument is wrong because he is wrong about everything. If you want to be right, choose the opposite from what John chooses.

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IN-9 Introduction
Worksheet - Fallacies

1. ____________________ The disrespect for law and order that seems to be everywhere today can be traced to the day we let the Beatles in the country back in 1964.

2. ____________________ We can either support good old ways of teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic, or we can turn our schools over to revolutionaries and yoga experts.

3. ____________________ Is Councilman X a crook? Why, no. He always shows up at every council meeting.

4. ____________________ Mr. Jones is crazy. He has a plan to end war for all time, but we can't take seriously the ideas of a fellow who burns incense and lives off yogurt.

5. ____________________ I noticed that every time we have lightning, we also have rain. The lightning must be responsible for the rain.

6. ____________________ If this class had a better teacher, more students would have received A's last term.

7. ____________________ In 1840, almost everyone was working 10 hours a day or more by the time he was 15, and the country was healthy. We'd have a healthier country today if we closed schools and put the kids to work.

8. ____________________ A poll taken in my Junior History class proves that the President is unpopular.

9. ____________________ Increased federal spending must be good for the economy, since you cannot prove it is bad.

10. ____________________ You cannot accept his view that there is a need to increase the size of the armed forces since he is a military officer,and military officers are expected to recommend an increase in military personnel.

11. ____________________ We must reduce the size of the public debt, since Pete Peeters, Bruins goalie, stated that this is essential.

12. ____________________ Since you cannot prove intelligence tests are inaccurate, they must be accurate.

13. ____________________ You cannot be serious in stating that the military involvement in Southeast Asia should be supported, since you have not enlisted in the military forces in support of military activities there.

14. ____________________ Salesman to customer simply looking at TV sets "Shall I charge this TV set to your account or do you wish to pay cash?"

IN-9 Introduction
Worksheet - Fallacies

15. ____________________ Proposition 2½ is a good law. My taxes are quite a bit lower now.

16. ____________________ Research has failed to prove that cigarette smoking is really harmful to health. Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that cigarette smoking will not hurt us.

17. ____________________ Doctor Smith must be a poor medical doctor. Did not the newspapers report his involvement in a nightclub brawl, and is he not divorced?

18. ____________________ Jones pitched an excellent game after he had an argument with his wife; therefore, he should have more arguments with his wife.

19. ____________________ Either it's all right or it's all wrong. You will admit that it is not all right; therefore, it must be all wrong.

20. ____________________ My client cannot be gulity of this crime. See how honest his eyes appear. Notice what a clean-cut, square-jawed countenance he has.

21. ____________________ You can't possibly accept his views that the employees need a raise. After all, he is the executive secretary of the labor union, and he is paid to make these kinds of statements.

22. ____________________ You said that teachers should not get a pay raise this year. Why do you dislike teachers?

23. ____________________ President Reagan was elected because of the way Carter handled the Iranian Hostage situation.

24. ____________________ We should not have a complete nuclear freeze. We also cannot keep building with no limit. This means a partial freeze would be best.

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EP-1 EXTRA PROBLEMS - VALUE WORDS

What is a word which makes a value judgment in each of the following arguments?

______ 1. Monopolies rip off the public, and they hurt our economy. Therefore, the government should prevent monopolies.
A. Public
B. Economy
C. Rip off
D. Therefore

______ 2. What is another value word in the argument in #1?
A. Government
B. Should
C. Prevent
D. They

______ 3. Farmers were hurt in the late 1800's by the practice of railroads of charging more for shipping on short hauls than on long hauls. This unfair practice caused the loss of thousands of dollars for farmers who shipped short distances.
A. Unfair
B. Loss
C. Charging
D. More
E. Short
F. Thousands

______ 4. Charging more for short hauls than for long hauls by railroads in the late 1800's was not done by evil men to take advantage of shippers (especially farmers).
A. Railroads
B. More
C. Evil
D. Shippers
E. Done

______ 5. Reformers, such as Jane Addams, hurt society. They never succeed in ending poverty and they raise the hopes of the poor for a better life, which the poor never get.
A. Hurt
B. Succeed
C. Reformers
D. Never
E. Poor
F. Life

______ 6. Farmers' problems in the late 1800's were their own fault. They shouldn't have borrowed so much money and spent it on things they didn't need.
A. Farmers
B. Late
C. Own
D. Fault

______ 7. What is another value word in the argument in #6?
A. Shouldn't
B. Borrowed
C. Money
D. Spent

______ 8. What is another value word?
A. Their
B. Things
C. Didn't need
D. They

EXTRA PROBLEMS - CONCLUSIONS

What is the conclusion of each of the following arguments?

_______ 1. Monopolies rip off the public, and they hurt our economy. Therefore, the government should prevent monopolies.
A. Monopolies rip off the public.
B. Monopolies hurt our economy.
C. Our economy is worth helping.
D. The government should prevent monopolies.

_______ 2. The Democrats spent only $300,000 on William Jennings Bryan's campaign in 1896, while the Republicans spent $7,000,000 on his opponent. Therefore, Bryan was defeated because he spent less money.
A. Democrats spent $300,000.
B. Republicans spent $7,000,000.
C. This spending difference was important.
D. Bryan lost because he spent less money.

_______ 3. Reformers, such as Jane Addams, hurt society. They never succeed in ending poverty, and they raise the poor's hopes for a better life, which the poor never get.
A. Reformers hurt society.
B. They never succeed in ending poverty.
C. They raise the poor's hopes for a better life.
D. The poor never get a better life.

_______ 4. Germany hurt our pride when she sank our ships in 1917. When our pride was hurt we had to go to war. So the U. S. was right to go to war in 1917.
A. Germany hurt our pride when she sank our ships.
B. When our pride was hurt we had to go to war.
C. The U. S. was right to go to war.
D. 1917 was the key year for entering the War.

_______ 5. The U. S. was right to go to war in 1917. We had no other choice after Germany sank our ships and hurt our pride.
A. Germany hurt our pride.
B. When our pride was hurt we had to go to war.
C. The U. S. was right to go to war.
D. 1917 was the key year for entering the war.

What is the conclusion of each of the following arguments?

______ 1. The government needs to step in to prevent monopolies in business, because monopolies rip off the public.
A. The government needs to step in to prevent monopolies in business.
B. Monopolies rip off the public.
C. The public should control the government.
D. The government needs to control the public.

______ 2. (I) Reformers who try to help the poor never succeed in ending poverty. (II) However, they do raise the poor's hopes for a better life which the poor never get. (III) Therefore, reformers hurt society.
A. I C. III
B. II D. Reformers should leave the poor alone.

______ 3. (I) Farmers' problems in the late 19th century were their own fault. (II) They shouldn't have borrowed so much money (III) and spent it on things they didn't need.
A. I C. III
B. II D. Farmers were stupid.

______ 4. (I) William Jennings Bryan was defeated in the election of 1896 because his party spent less money. (II) The Democrats had only $300,000 to spend on his campaign. (III) Meanwhile, the Republicans spent $7,000,000 on his opponent. (IV) No wonder he lost.
A. I C. III
B. II D. IV

______ 5. (I) Just look at what happens when government gets involved in people's lives. (II) It almost always hurts them. (III) Therefore, government interference in society is wrong.
A. I C. III
B. II D. People's lives are worth saving.

______ 6. (I) Government interference in society is wrong. (II) Just look at what happens when government gets involved in people's lives. (III) It almost always hurts them.
A. I C. III
B. II D. The government watches people's lives.

EP-4 EXTRA PROBLEMS - CONCLUSIONS

What is the conclusion of each of the following?

______ 1. (I) The businessman who builds a factory builds a temple, (II) and the workers worship in that temple.

A. I
B. II
C. Workers should be religious.
D. Businessman should be respected and supported.

______ 2. (I) The U. S. took steps against Japan by April, 1941. (II) This caused Japan to attack further into Indochina. (III) As a result, the U. S. cut off all trade with Japan. (IV) What choice did Japan have at this point but to attack the U. S.? (V) They chose Pearl Harbor.

A. I
B. II
C. III
D. IV
E. V
F. The U. S. should not have cut off all aid to Japan.
G. The U. S. forced Japan to attack Pearl Harbor.

______ 3. (I) The stock market can be used as a monitor of the country's economic health. (II) After the start of the NRA (National Recovery Administration), a New Deal agency to promote recovery from the Depression of the 1930's, the stock market remained at its low 1933 level.

A. I
B. II
C. The NRA did not bring economic recovery.
D. The NRA did not help the stock market.
E. The New Deal did not bring economic recovery.

______ 4. (I) An imperialist country is one which operates in another country for its own selfish interests. (II) The U. S. entered the Vietnam War to further her own interests.

A. I
B. II
C. The Vietnam War was an imperialist war.
D. The U. S. was an imperialist country in the Vietnam War
E. Imperialism is wrong.

______ 5. (I) The rebels in El Salvador are radical, so there is a danger of the country becoming pro-Soviet if the rebels win. (II) In this situation the U. S. has to intervene to stop the revolution or we'll lose the country to the U.S.S.R.

A. I
B. II
C. U. S. intervention will work.
D. Radicals support the U.S.S.R.

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EP-5 EXTRA PROBLEMS - UNDEFINED WORDS

What is the most vague or undefined word in each of the following arguments? (That is, a word for which we have no precise meaning.)

_______ 1. We need government regulation of product safety. Without it people will be endangered, and safety levels will be inadequate.
A. Government C. Product
B. People D. Inadequate

_______ 2. Medicare pays for many unneeded or overpriced operations.
A. Medicare C. Unneeded
B. Pays D. Operations

_______ 3. Immigrants came in times of prosperity but not in periods of economic decline.
A. Immigrants C. Economic
B. Prosperity D. Came

_______ 4. America should cut down on immigration - we allow too many immigrants into the country.
A. America C. Immigration E. Country
B. Down D. Too many

_______ 5. There is no question about the fact that the government should help the poor achieve a decent level of living.
A. Question C. Government
B. About D. Poor

_______ 6. What is another undefined word in the argument in #5?
A. Should C. Decent
B. Fact D. Living

What is the assumption in each of the following arguments?

______ 1. Monopolies hurt our economy, so the government should prevent them.
A. The government should prevent them (monopolies).
B. Something which hurts our economy should be prevented by our government.
C. Our economy provides needed money for our government.
D. Monopolies hurt our government.

______ 2. Germany hurt our pride when she sank our ships in 1917, so we were right to go to war with her.
A. Going to war to save a country's pride is right.
B. Our ships should be able to sail anywhere in the world.
C. Germany bullied us by sinking our ships.
D. We should be proud of our war effort in World War I.

______ 3. Government almost always hurts some people when it gets involved in people's lives. Therefore, government involvement in people's lives is wrong.
A. Government involvement in people's lives is wrong.
B. People should not interfere with the government.
C. Something which hurts some people is wrong.
D. Things which help some people should be encouraged.

______ 4. The U. S. was wrong to take over the Philippines in 1899. After all, we did it mainly to help ourselves but, not them.
A. The U. S. was wrong to take over the Philippines.
B. A country which takes over another country mainly to help itself out is wrong.
C. The Philippines was not worth taking over in 1899.
D. We should have taken over the Philippines mainly to help them out, not us.

EXTRA PROBLEMS - ASSUMPTIONS

A. What are two assumptions in the following argument? (An assumption is something unstated for which no proof is offered.)

_______ 1. "The rebels in El Salvador are radical, so the country will become pro Soviet if the rebels win. In this
_______ 2. situation the U. S. has to intervene to stop the revolution or we'll lose the country to the U.S.S.R."

A. There are rebels in El Salvador.
B. U. S. intervention will help defeat the rebels.
C. The U. S. has to intervene.
D. There is no revolution in El Salvador.
E. The country will become pro Soviet if the rebels win.

B. What is an assumption in each of the following arguments?

_______ 3. Farmers were hurt badly in the late 1800's by the practice of railroads of charging more for shipping on short hauls than on long hauls. This unfair practice caused the loss of thousands of dollars for farmers who shipped short distances.

A. Some farmers lost their farms due to the railroads.
B. Charging more for short hauls was wrong.
C. Farmers should have bought their own trucks for shipping.
D. Charging more for shipping on short hauls doesn't make sense.

_______ 4. We should do away with the property tax as the method for raising revenue for our cities. The property tax involves uneven and therefore unfair assessments (some people pay more taxes for property worth the same as other property).

A. We should do away with the property tax.
B. Our cities don't need tax revenue.
C. The best way to correct uneven assessments is to do away with the tax.
D. The sales tax would be a fairer tax.

_______ 5. McCarthy's accusations hurt many people's careers. 18 people in the State Department who were accused by McCarthy lost their jobs.

A. McCarthy's accusations were wrong.
B. McCarthy's accusations caused the 18 people to lose their jobs.
C. Those who did not lose their jobs were not accused by McCarthy.
D. People's careers were not as important as Communism.

EP-8 EXTRA PROBLEMS - ASSUMPTIONS

Write out two assumptions in the following argument:

A. John F. Kennedy had a good idea about how to get the economy moving again. However, when he introduced it as a bill to Congress the special interest groups got hold of it and destroyed it.

1.

2.

B. We need government regulation of product safety. Without it people will be endangered and safety levels will be inadequate.

3.

4.

C. The government should step in to prevent monopolies in business--monopolies which take advantage of the public.

5.

EP-9 EXTRA PROBLEMS - TYPES OF REASONING

For each of the following arguments write the letter of the correct type of argument.

A. Evidence (Proof)

B. Cause and Effect

C. Sample (Generalization)

D. Comparison (Analogy)

E. Debating

_______ 1. The man who builds a factory builds a temple, and the workers worship in that temple.

_______ 2. The main reason the U. S. entered World War I was because the Germans broke their "Sussex" pledge and kept sinking American ships.

_______ 3. The U. S. forced Japan to attack Pearl Harbor. The U. S. took steps against Japan by April, 1941. The result was Japan attacking further into Indochina. The U. S. then cut off all trade with Japan. What choice did Japan have but to attack?

_______ 4. The Battle of Dien Bien Phu had the same effect on French public opinion as the TET Offensive had on American public opinion.

_______ 5. Those historians are wrong who say the U. S. entered World War I primarily for economic reasons. They underestimate how important was the German sinking of American ships.

_______ 6. If the U. S. hadn't taken the Philippines in 1899, the Germans would have taken them. So we were right to take them first.

_______ 7. Medicare pays for many unneeded or overpriced operations.

_______ 8. Jimmy Carter did a good job as president. During his years in office the GNP of the country increased significantly.

For each of the following arguments, write in the letter of the correct fallacy from the list below: (Look up the meanings in your "Guide to Critical Thinking".)

A. Stereotyping

B. Correlation as cause

C. Special pleading

D. Hasty generalization (oversimplificatio

E. No fallacy

______ 1. Several times in 1940 and 1941 the Japanese offered suggestions to end U. S. - Japanese tensions. The U.S. always refused. Therefore, the U. S. was responsible for the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor.

______ 2. The rich people control the country. They offer just enough prosperity and freedom to keep the rest of the country in line. They pull the strings and the rest of us do what they want.

______ 3. While the unemployment rate in the U.S. from 1895 to 1900 decreased from 13.7% to 5.0%, the employment of children over 14 years of age rose from 9.1% in 1890 to 10.3% in 1900. Therefore, the increased number of working children reduced the unemployment rate.

______ 4. Government interference in society is wrong. Just look what happened when government gets involved. It took away a man's horse when he didn't pay his taxes. It broke into the wrong home, scared the people to death, and wrecked the place in a drug search. And it forced a man to move out of his home to make way for a museum and then didn't build the museum.

______ 5. The stock market can be used to show the state of the country's economic health. After the start of the NRA (A New Deal agency to promote recovery from the 1930's Depression) the stock market remained at its low 1933 level. Therefore, using the stock market as a measure of the economy, the NRA didn't help the economy.

______ 6. During the Carter Presidency, the GNP of our country increased more than did the GNP of the Soviet Union. So Jimmy Carter did a good job as president and better than did Breshnev.

______ 7. President Kennedy's program to get the economy moving again was destroyed in Congress once the special interest groups got hold of it.

______ 8. Medicare pays for many unneeded and overpriced operations.

______ 9. The rich have kept the people down. The people have tried to rise up to achieve more equality and true social democracy, but the rich have all the power.

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For each of the following arguments, write in the letter of the correct fallacy from the list below: (Look up the meanings in your "Guide to Critical Thinking".)

A. Straw man	D. False Scenario
B. Prevalent proof (everyone believes, so it is true)	E. No fallacy
C. Either/or	

_____ 1. The Watergate fiasco hurt the economy. Most important people say it hurt the economy.

_____ 2. Clifford: "If the government cut the defense budget it could improve conditions in the slums by building better housing."

Steven: "So the government is going to build mansions for everyone, huh? You're crazy."

_____ 3. McCarthy was either a dangerous demagogue or a courageous American. But since he was not a courageous American (his tactics were anything but courageous), he must have been a dangerous demagogue.

_____ 4. Marlene: "The government is hurting our economy by all this wasteful spending."

Bob: "Where's your evidence to prove that?"

_____ 5. Without government regulation for the good of the public, monopolies would run the country completely. With no other competitors to turn to for a product, the average person would be at the mercy of the monopoly.

_____ 6. A New York Times poll showed that 80% of businessmen responding believed that President Nixon's economic performance had suffered because of Watergate. So Watergate hurt the U. S. economy.

_____ 7. As everyone knows, a country with a stronger economy is better able to fight costly wars.

_____ 8. Joe: "The government should help bring about more equality in society

Helen: "How can you say that? True equality is impossible. So, why should the government try to do something which is impossible?"

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EXTRA PROBLEMS - FALLACIES

For each of the following arguments, write in the letter of the correct fallacy from the list below: (Look up the meanings in your "Guide to Critical Thinking".)

A. Equivocation	C. Begging the Question
B. Either/or	D. False Scenario

GIVENS:

1. Demand - the amount people will buy at given prices.
2. The Philippines were ruled by Spain until 1898, then by the U.S.
3. There were 4 million slaves in the U.S. in 1860.
4. Filipinos wanted to rule themselves in 1898.

_______ 1. Question: What is one reason why the U. S. decided to enter World War I to help the allies?
Answer: The U.S. entered World War I to come to the aid of Britain, France, and the other allied countries.

_______ 2. Brian: "The U.S. was wrong to make loans to England and France, but not to Germany, because by helping only one side it was not being neutral."

Sean: "The U. S. was right to make the loans. We really were being neutral because we did what was in our interest by making the loans. And doing what's in your interest is being neutral."

_______ 3. President Reagan says he is going to deal with the economy in a creative way. But only God can create. That shows how ridiculous Reagan is.

_______ 4. Some people say the government should help bring about more equality in our society. But true equality is impossible and has always been impossible. So government help always fails. We're better off without it.

_______ 5. If the game was completed and it wasn't a tie or we didn't win, then we lost.

_______ 6. Believers in the iron law of supply and demand argued that the supply of goods had outstripped (was much greater than) the demand. But there was no evidence that the needs and wants of the majority of Americans had been satisfied.

_______ 7. The U. S. was justified in taking the Philippines. True, many Filipinos opposed U.S. control of the islands, but U.S. rule was much better than the Spanish rule the Filipinos had previously experienced.

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_______ 8. Without slavery, the problems between the sections could probably have been worked out by the ordinary give-and-take of politics; with slavery, they became insoluble.

_______ 9. Reformers who try to help the poor, such as Jane Addams, hurt our society. They never succeed in ending poverty, but they raise the hopes of the poor for a better life which the poor never get.

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WP-3

AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER
WORKSHEET: HISTORIAN A

____1. The main point of Historian A is:

A. The Spanish gave in to American demands, so President McKinley shouldn't have asked for a declaration of war.

B. The Spanish-American War was a key event in American history.

C. President McKinley was pushed into war by the jingoists and the yellow press.

D. The destruction of the "Maine" forced President McKinley to ask for a declaration of war.

2. What is the unstated assumption in the second paragraph (sentences V - VI)? (Remember the steps for identifying unstated assumptions.)

3. Write out the type of reasoning and key question for each of the following sections and write out how well the argument answers the key question:

	Type of Reasoning	Key Question	How Well Answered
a. Sentences VIII-X			
b. Sentence XIV			
c. Sentence XVII			
d. Sentence XXXI			
e. Sentences XI-XII			

4. Evaluate the evidence put forth in:

a. Sentence XX

b. Sentence XXIII

5. The main point of Historian B is:

6. What is the unstated assumption in sentence XVI?

7. Evaluate the type of reasoning used in:

	Type of Reasoning	Key Question	How Well Answered
a. Sentences V-VII			
b. Sentence XIV			
c. Sentence XXII			

8. Compare the evidence in footnote 4 (sentence XXVI) for Historian B with footnote 7 (sentence XXVIII) for Historian A. Given the relevant information below, which viewpoint is stronger on Spain's reply to U. S. demands?

Relevant information: A mediator is someone who brings two sides in a dispute together to help them discuss their differences, but who does not decide on a solution to the dispute.

____9. Look at the cartoon on page 27 in your booklet. Which viewpoint does it support?

A. Historian A	C. Both
B. Historian B	D. Neither

WP-6 AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

Survey: Contraband and Submarines

Suppose you are the leader of an island nation which is at war. Your enemy is using submarines to stop merchant ships which are delivering badly needed supplies to your country. Currently the submarines are surfacing, stopping the ships, letting the people off, and then sinking the ships. Which of the following would you do?

Would do	Would not do	Item	Reasons why you would or would not do this
		1. Arm your merchant ships so they can sink submarines when the subs surface.	
		2. Tell the captains of merchant ships to try to ram submarines when they surface.	
		3. Put ammunition and other war armaments (called contraband) on passenger ships. These passenger ships have the citizens of other countries on them.	
		4. Tell the captains of your merchant ships to run up the flags of neutral countries. This way the submarine commanders may think the ships are not yours.	

Suppose you are the leader of a country which is at war with an island nation. Your enemy controls the ocean with its large navy and is causing starvation in your country with its blockade. You have submarines which could cut off delivery of supplies to your enemy. However,the enemy has sunk several of your subs when they have surfaced. Which of the following would you do?

Would do	Would not do	Item	Reasons why you would or would not do this
		5. Use submarines to sink merchant ships of your enemy, but not if passengers from neutral countries are thought to be on them.	
		6. Use submarines to sink passenger ships of your enemy, even if some of the passengers are from neutral countries.	
		7. Order the submarines to surface, warn the ships, and let all passengers and crew off the ships before sinking them.	

AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

WORKSHEET

Historian A

1. What is the main point of Historian A's argument?

2. What is an unstated assumption in sentence IX?

3. What is an unstated assumption in sentences V-VI?

____4. What is the fallacy in sentence XIII?

A. Appeal to the Golden Mean (p.19)
C. False Scenario (p.20)
B. Straw Man (p.21)
D. Unrepresentative Sample (p.16)
E. Negative Proof (p.18)

5. Evaluate the reasoning used in:

a. Sentence VII -

b. Sentence VIII -

c. Sentence XII -

6. Evaluate the evidence used in sentence XVI:

Historian B

7. What is the main point of Historian B's argument?

8. What is the unstated assumption in sentence XX?

9. What is the fallacy in sentence XVI?

10. What is the fallacy in sentence XXIV? (It is also in sentence XXXVI.)

11. What is the fallacy in sentence XXXII?

12. List a total of two words which make value judgments in sentences II and XXI:

13. List a total of two unclear (or undefined) words in sentences XI, XXIV, and XXIX:

14. As you know, one of the types of reasoning which historians use to reach their conclusions is debating. How well do you think Historian B does in showing that the following arguments are wrong?

a. Allied propaganda and American sympathy for the Allies was the main cause for the United States to enter World War I.

b. American loans and war trade drew the United States into World War I.

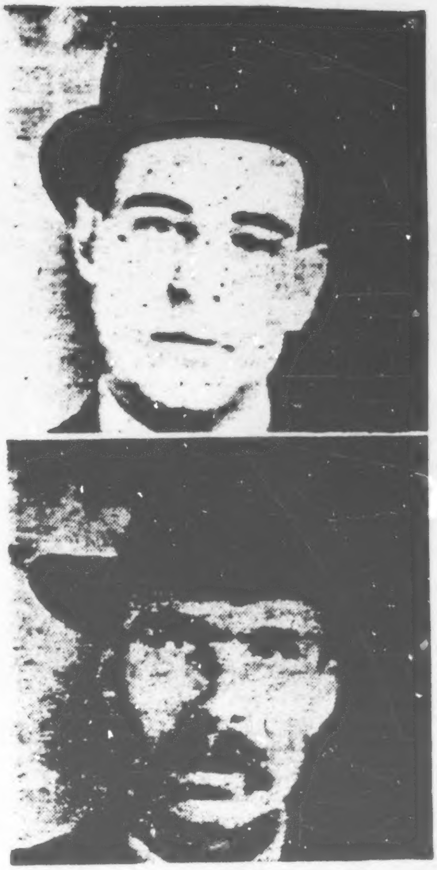
15. Assume that Historian B showed conclusively that Allied propaganda and American loans and trade were not important factors in drawing the United States into the War. How well does Historian B show that the main cause he argues for did push the United States into the War?

16. Which of the two viewpoints, Historian A's or Historian B's, is stronger and why?

DE-1

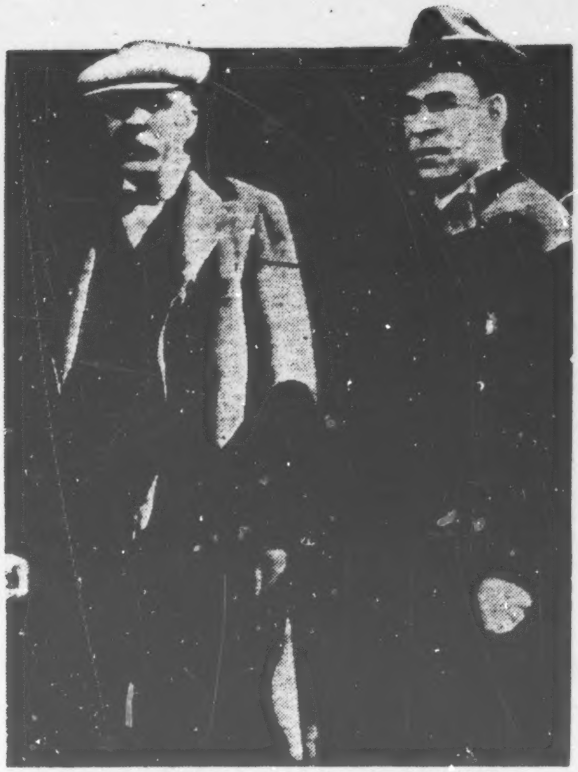
WORKSHEET

#1



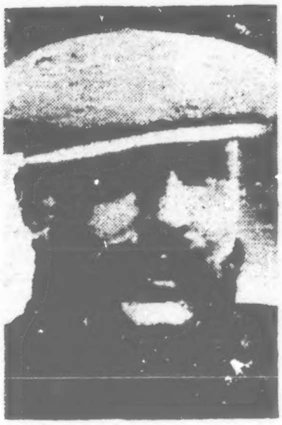
Nicola Sacco (top) and Bartolomeo Vanzetti

#2

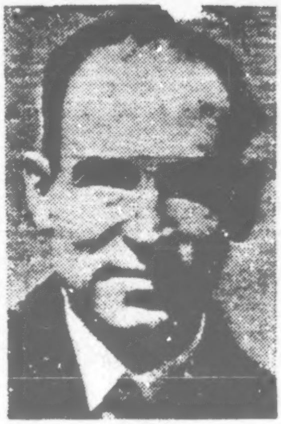


Bartolomeo Vanzetti (left) and Nicola Sacco in 1927 photo

#3



BARTOLOMEO VANZETTI
. . . 1927 photo



NICOLA SACCO
. . . 1927 photo

DEPRESSION ERA

Overview of the Causes of the Depression

The Great Depression, which began in late 1929 and lasted until roughly 1940, was the worst depression in American history. Historians disagree sharply on the main cause of the depression. Since the topic is quite complicated you need to be prepared in order to adequately evaluate the various arguments.

First, you need to have a clear understanding of the terms involved in the topic. You need to know the meaning of the following terms:

Depression - a dramatic slowdown in the economy, characterized by a significant decline in the Gross National Product (GNP) and national income, and a great increase in unemployment.

Recession - a mild slowdown in the economy, less dramatic than a depression.

Gross National Product - the measure of all the goods and services produced in one year in a country, measured in dollars in the United States.

National Income - the total net income earned in production of goods and services. It is the same as Gross National Product except that it does not include things such as allowances for wear and tear on machinery and buildings.

Banking Panic - a situation in which many bank depositors withdraw their money (called a run on the bank) causing a large number of banks to close.

Stock Crash - a dramatic drop in the price of stocks.

Bull Market - a situation in which the prices of stocks rise significantly.

Federal Reserve Bank - an independent government agency which controls, through various procedures, the supply of money. It also has significant influence over interest rates.

Interest Rates - the amount charged for borrowing money. Many businesses borrow money to expand their output. Thus, higher interest rates can slow down business (and economic) growth, and lower interest rates can lead to business growth.

Production - the making of goods or performing services.

Consumption - spending money to purchase or buy goods and services.

Speculation - buying a product only with the hope that the product can be sold later at a higher price.

Money - Currency (paper money and coins) and demand deposits (checking accounts). About 4/5 of our money is checking accounts - only 1/5 is currency.

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DE-3 DEPRESSION ERA

RELEVANT INFORMATION

1. One economist estimates that total stock market investment was a very small percentage of the whole economy (between 1% and 2% of total national income).

2. National income declined by 36% from 1929 to 1933.

3. The richest 5% in America increased its share of income from 24% of total national income in 1922 to 26% of total national income in 1929.

4. There have been numerous bank panics and stock crashes in the United States. Some have been followed by depressions and some have not.

5. In any economy which is changing, there will be growing industries and declining industries.

6. Short-term interest rates declined dramatically after the stock market crash and remained low in 1930. Long-term rates on government securities stayed about the same. Long-term private interest rates went up.

7. Output of goods and services in 1933 were 50% below what they could have been, according to one economist.

DEPRESSION ERA

Question Sheet: Viewpoints on the Causes of the Depression

1. What is the main point of Historian A?

2. What is the main point of Historian B?

3. Which historian, A or B, gives a stronger explanation of unequal distribution of income as an important cause of the depression? Explain:

4. What assumption do both Historians A and B make about the stock crash and the Depression?

5. Which historian, C or D, makes a stronger argument that the stock crash caused the Great Depression? Explain:

6. What is the main point of Historian E?

7. What is a possible weakness in Historian E's argument?

8. What is Historian F's main point?

9. What is one question you would ask of Historian F to better evaluate his viewpoint?

10. Using the relevant information and your own thinking, show one weakness in each of the following historian's viewpoints:

    Historian A -

    Historian B -

    Historian C -

    Historian F -

11. Based on the arguments they make on the causes of the Great Depression, what do you think each of the following would recommend to avoid or cure depressions?

    Historian B -

    Historian D -

    Historian E -

    Historian F -

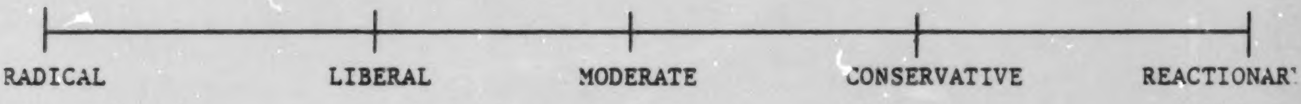
DE-4 DEPRESSION ERA

THE POLITICAL SPECTRUM

What does it mean when a person says that Senator Smith is a liberal, or that Congressman Jones is a conservative? The terms "liberal" and "conservative" are very complex, and different people give them different meanings. The characteristics which follow will help you to better understand these terms the way people today commonly use them with regard to domestic issues (ie. not foreign policy).

Liberals tend to:	Conservatives tend to:
1. Turn to the government to solve economic problems.	1. Turn to business and the market to solve economic problems.
2. Favor government regulation of business.	2. Oppose government regulation of business.
3. Favor more equality over more freedom.	3. Favor more freedom over more equality.
4. Oppose larger defense budgets.	4. Support larger defense budgets.
5. Favor more government spending to solve economic problems.	5. Oppose more government spending.
6. Favor higher taxes on rich people.	6. Oppose higher taxes on rich people.
7. Favor political and economic change.	7. Oppose political and economic change.

The terms "liberal" and "conservative" can be put onto something called a political spectrum.



Radicals tend to favor even more government intervention, more equality and more extreme change than liberals. "Moderates" are between liberals and conservatives. "Reactionaries" tend not only to oppose change but also to want to go back to earlier times.

DE - 5 DEPRESSION ERA

RELEVANT INFORMATION

1. A depression is a major collapse of an economy consisting of a serious decline in GNP, very high unemployment, and a great increase in the number of business bankruptcies.

2. Recovery from a depression would consist of an increase in GNP, lowering unemployment to close to the normal rate, and lowering the number of business failures to around the normal rate.

3. In 1939 and 1940, the outbreak of World War II in Europe led to a great demand for U. S. goods to fight the War. This led to a great increase in business production in the U. S.

4. Voters often vote for programs which they think help them personally, but which actually don't help the country in any way.

5. Businessmen sometimes oppose programs which, in the long run, would help them.

6. Some businessmen are opposed to governmental programs which they feel are socialistic, even when the programs may help the country in some other way such as expanding the GNP. These businessmen feel the disadvantages of socialism outweigh any possible advantages.

7. Voters sometimes vote for candidates for their personal characteristics (leadership abilities, effective speeches) even when they do not understand the effects of the candidates' programs on the country.

8. In countries with private businesses, an increase in business production is a key element in an expanded GNP. Even in countries with large governmental budgets, but with private business, when the GNP expands, business production also expands. There have been no cases in countries where private businesses predominate where the GNP has expanded significantly without an expansion in business production.

9. A more even distribution of wealth was one of the goals of the New Deal.

10. The U. S. is a country where private businesses predominate.

11. Another part of a depression is a decline in prices. Getting off the gold standard should lead, in the long run, to higher prices.

12. A country can expand its GNP and have an uneven distribution of wealth. In fact, the distribution of wealth can be getting more uneven while a country is expanding its GNP.

DE - 6B DEPRESSION ERA

WORKSHEET

1. What is the main point of Historian A?

______ 2. What are three types of reasoning used in sentences VIII and IX? (Write three letters on the line.)
A. Comparison C. Cause and Effect E. Debating
B. Sample D. Proof

______ 3. In which sentence(s) (or none) is evidence offered to support this argument?

4. List three sentences with which Historian A would agree. They can't be phrased in the same way as in Historian A's argument. The first one is done for you:

A. A larger national debt is bad. (sentence VII).

B.

C.

5. What is the main point of Historian B?

6. What are two words which make value judgments in sentence I?

7. In which sentence(s) (or none) is evidence offered to support this argument?

______ 8. What type of reasoning is primarily used in sentence VII?
A. Comparison C. Cause and Effect E. Debating
B. Sample D. Proof

9. Write the key question for this type of reasoning (in question 8) and explain how well Historian B answers the key question.

COLD WAR

Atomic Bomb - Value Survey

Suppose you found the following information. Check off whether you think each justified or did not justify the U.S. in dropping the atomic bombs on Japan in August, 1945. Remember: they aren't necessarily true. The question is: If they are true, would they make the dropping of the atomic bombs justified or not justified?

Justified	Not Justified	Suppose you found that:
		1. The United States warned the Japanese to surrender or be wiped out by the bombs.
		2. The United States dropped the bombs to end the war more quickly and save many more lives than it killed.
		3. The United States dropped the bombs primarily to scare the Russians and make them give in to our demands in Europe.
		4. The Japanese leaders were trying to surrender and the American leaders knew it.
		5. Although the Japanese leaders were thinking about surrendering, they had a lot of conditions (limits) on the surrender which would allow them to say later that they hadn't really surrendered.
		6. The United States dropped the bombs to end the war before the Russians could attack Japan and Manchuria. Otherwise the Russians would get part of Japan and China.
		7. The United States could have demonstrated the bomb to the Japanese leaders on an uninhabited island.
		8. The United States never tried to discuss surrendering with the Japanese leaders.
		9. The head United States military leaders in 1945 were opposed to dropping the atomic bombs on Japanese cities.
		10. The United States had spent a lot of time and money on the bombs and wanted to see how they worked.
		11. The United States dropped the bombs as revenge for the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor.

COLD WAR

Relevant Information
(All are quotes from the sources cited)

1. Harry S. Truman, Year of Decisions, p. 421:

   (When I was informed of the successful bombing of Hiroshima) I was greatly moved. I telephoned (Secretary of State) Byrnes aboard ship to give him the news and then said to the group of sailors around me, "This is the greatest thing in history. It's time for us to get home." I could not keep back my expectation that the Pacific war might now be brought to a speedy end.

2. Henry L. Stimson, (Secretary of War in 1945), "The Decision to Use the Atomic Bomb," Harper's CLCIV, February, 1947, p. 101.
   Report of the Scientific Panel, June 16, 1945:

   The opinions of our scientific colleagues on the initial use of these weapons are not unanimous: they range from the proposal of a purely technical demonstration to that of the military application best designed to induce surrender.

3. Joseph Davies (United States Ambassador to the Soviet Union in 1945) Diary, July 28, 1945:

   (Secretary of State Byrnes) was having a hard time with reparations (for the Soviets) but the details as to the success of the atomic bomb, which he had just received, gave him confidence that the Soviets would agree as to these difficulties. Byrnes' attitude that the atomic bomb assured ultimate success in negotiations disturbed me more than his description of its success amazed me. I told him the threat wouldn't work, and might do irreparable harm.

4. Meeting at the White House, June 18, 1945. President Truman wrote down a point made by the Joint Chiefs on invading Japan:

   In all, it had been estimated (by the Joint Chiefs) that it would require until the late fall of 1946 to bring Japan to her knees.

5. Joseph Grew, (Acting Secretary of State, May, 1945), Turbulent Era, Vol. II, Boston, 1952:

   In the light of available evidence I, myself, and others felt and still feel that if such a categorical statement about the dynasty (that the Japanese would be allowed to keep it) had been issued in May 1945 the surrender elements in the (Japanese) government might well have been afforded by such a statement a valid reason and the necessary strength to come to an early clear-cut decision (for surrender before the bombs were dropped).

Overview of the Cold War

Since Russia became a Communist country (renamed the Soviet Union or USSR) in 1917 there has been hostility between it and the United States. This hostility is due in large part to the vast differences in ideology (set of beliefs) between the two countries. The Soviet Union as a Communist country believes in the overthrow of capitalists in all countries to provide more equality and ultimately freedom for the working classes (called proletariat). The United States, as a capitalist country, believes in individual rights and private property and as such is appalled by Soviet violations of rights and confiscation (government taking away) of people's property. Thus, the two countries are suspicious and fearful of, and hostile toward each other.

During World War II the United States and the Soviet Union cooperated enough as allies to defeat Nazi Germany. Near the end of the war the old suspicions and hostility returned as the contrary ideologies reemerged. The tensions increased greatly after the War, reaching a peak in the late 1940's.

Historians call this tension and diplomatic hostility (but lack of all-out war) after World War II the Cold War. In many respects the Cold War has continued through the 1950's, 1960's, 1970's, and 1980's. The fear and tension has continued to a greater or lesser extent through the whole time period. During the Cuban Missile Crisis, for example, tensions were very great indeed, while during the period of detente in the 1970's tensions were not so strong.

The question we're going to deal with in this lesson is: Which side, the United States or the Soviet Union, was primarily responsible for causing the Cold War at the end of World War II? There are many other issues which could be explored on the topic of the Cold War, and some people feel the question of which side mainly caused the Cold War is not that important. Nevertheless, many historians do think it is important and continue to debate it, and many interesting arguments have been made on the topic.

In order to understand the debate on the Cold War you need to understand some terms used in the controversy. Historians who believe that the Soviet Union was primarily responsible for the Cold War are called Traditionalists. Historians who primarily blame the United States are called Revisionists. Self-determination is the right of each country to rule itself free from outside interference. Spheres of influence is a concept which applies when a strong country dominates weaker countries in an area. Spheres of influence conflict at least to some extent with self-determination, since when a weak country is dominated by another country it is not ruling itself free from outside interference.

There were many other issues in the 1940's which were important to the origins of the Cold War, such as: reparations (war payments) to the Soviet Union from Germany, the division of Germany into zones of occupation, and crises in Turkey and Iran. These other issues have also been debated by historians. However, in this lesson we will stick to issues revolving around eastern Europe.

RELEVANT INFORMATION

1. Foreign Relations, 1945, Volume V, pp. 252-255.

Memorandum by Mr. Charles E. Bohlen, Assistant to the Secretary of State, of a Meeting at the White House, April 23, 1945, 2 p.m.

The Secretary of State told the meeting that Mr. Molotov had arrived in good spirits yesterday and had had a good talk with the President yesterday evening but that at the Foreign Ministers meeting later great difficulties had developed over the Polish question. The continuance of the meeting this morning had produced no improvement and a complete deadlock had been reached on the subject of the carrying out of the Yalta agreement on Poland. The Secretary said that the truth of the matter was the Lublin or Warsaw Government was not representative of the Polish people and that it was now clear that the Soviet Government intended to try to enforce upon the United States and British Governments this puppet government of Poland and obtain its acceptance as the legal government of Poland.

The President said that he had told Mr. Molotov last night that he intended fully to carry out all the agreements reached by President Roosevelt at the Crimea. He added that he felt our agreements with the Soviet Union so far had been a one way street and that could not continue; it was now or never. He intended to go on with the plans for San Francisco (for the United Nations) and if the Russians did not wish to join us they could go to hell. The President then asked in rotation the officials present for their view.

2. Stanislow Mikolajczyk, (Prime Minister of the Polish Government in London during World War II), The Rape of Poland - Pattern of Soviet Aggression (1948) p. 267:

Memorandum to the British Government — The Polish Government have, moreover, reasons to fear that in present conditions the life and property of Polish citizens may be exposed to danger after the entry of Soviet troops into Poland and the imposing on the country of Soviet administration. In that case, desperate reaction of the Polish community may be expected....

3. Zbigniew Brzezinski, Soviet Bloc, p. 12. Summarized from Mikolajczyk, The Rape of Poland:

In a free election he (Mikolajczyk) most certainly would have won a sweeping victory . . . . But free elections were not likely to occur. In Poland of 1945, all the levers of power were in Communists' hands, the Red Army was on the scene, and the NKVD (secret police) was active. Mikolajczyk's popularity under these conditions had no political significance, while the growing awareness of the absence of effective Western support made it possible (for the Communists) to apply increasing doses of terror against the Polish Peasant Party. In 1947, after the manipulated elections formalized the liquidation of his party, Mikolajczyk escaped abroad.

4. March 6, 1946, Foreign Relations: 1946, Vol. V, p. 516.

George Kennan Charge d'affairs to the USSR (Diplomatic representative in charge of the embassy during the absence of the Ambassador):

> There could be no doubt that Maurice Thorez, leader of the French Communist Party, was acting "as (a) Moscow stooge."

5. Martin Herz, Beginnings, p. 136:

> May, 1945 Communists held 7 out of 25 Cabinet posts. Benes returned from London to rule Czechoslovakia in April, 1945. Free elections were held in Czechoslovakia in 1946. Absolute control didn't come until 1948.

> Czechoslovakia had a tradition of friendliness and cultural affinity with Russia...(which) was paralleled to some extent in Bulgaria and Yugoslavia.

CO-5

COLD WAR

OPINION SURVEY ON WAR

	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Reasons
1.	It is wrong for the United States to support corrupt dictatorships in an effort to stop Communism.						
2.	Military leaders should be in charge of military strategy in war.						
3.	Bombing of civilians in wartime is always wrong.						
4.	It is immoral for a country to enter a war without the intention of making the necessary sacrifices to win the war.						
5.	If guerrillas mix with the civilian population then it is justifiable to kill some of the civilians in trying to kill the guerrillas.						
6.	Limited wars with limited objectives are sometimes necessary. For example, a country might fight a war to defend the independence of a country without attacking other countries.						
7.	When a country has no national interest at stake in an area, it should not fight a war in that area.						
8.	The United States should not get involved in civil wars.						
9.	When a country's freedom is threatened by invasion or subversion the United States should protect the country.						

10. Since America once fought a revolution for independence it should not oppose colonial struggles for independence today.

11. If the majority of people in a country choose Communism then the United States has no business fighting Communism there.

CO-5

WORKSHEET

Historian A

1. What is the main point of Historian A's argument?

2. Identify and evaluate the reasoning used in paragraph 4, when the author talks about Ho Chi Minh and George Washington:

3. Evaluate the evidence in footnote 5:

4. Restate Historian A's argument on the nationwide 1956 election in premise, premise, conclusion form. (Paragraphs 4 and 6) (Remember, the second premise should be stated in general terms - i.e. "People who——"):

   Premise:

   Premise:

   Conclusion:

5. Evaluate the above argument:

6. Evaluate the cause and effect reasoning used by Historian A in paragraphs 8+9 and the first sentence of paragraph 10:

7. Write down and evaluate a sentence in paragraph 10 which uses sample reasoning:

8. What is a possible weakness in paragraph 13?

Historian B

9. What is the main point of Historian B's argument?

10. What type of reasoning does Historian B primarily use in paragraph 2?

11. Evaluate the evidence in footnote 1:

12. Evaluate the argument in paragraph 5:

13. What unstated assumption does Historian B make in paragraph 7 about civilian leaders in war? Do you agree with it?

14. Evaluate the proof-by-evidence reasoning used in paragraph 8 down to footnote 6:

15. Evaluate the evidence in footnote 10:

16. Evaluate the argument in paragraph 13:

17. List below one of the pieces of relevant information and explain how it affects one or both of the viewpoints:

CO-5

COLD WAR

RELEVANT INFORMATION
(All are quotes from the sources cited.)

1. Dean Acheson, Secretary of State, February 1, 1950. Public Statement:

> The recognition by the Kremlin (Russia) of Ho Chi Minh's Communist movement in Indochina comes as a surprise. The Soviet acknowledgement of this movement should remove any illusions as to the "nationalist" nature of Ho Chi Minh's aims and reveals Ho in his true colors as the mortal enemy of native independence in Indochina.

2. U.S. Consul in Saigon George Abbott, February 12, 1949:

> One peculiar thing about Vietnam Communism is that there has been very little Anti-American propaganda.

3. Robert McNamara, Secretary of Defense, March 26, 1964. Public Statement:

> Thus today in Vietnam we are not dealing with factional disputes or the remnants of a colonial struggle against the French but rather with a major test case of Communism's new strategy. .

4. Passing the Torch, Volume 2 of The Vietnam Experience, by Edward Doyle et. al. (1981), p. 146:

> A 1956 presidential ordinance (by Diem) authorizing the arrest and detention in political reeducation centers "of all persons deemed dangerous to the state" inflicted hardship and suffering on tens of thousands of people, Communists and non-Communists alike. It did, however, succeed in decimating the Communist party structure in the South. By the summer of 1956, approximately 90 percent of all (Communist) cells had been smashed in one province; other provinces showed similar results.

5. Roger Hilsman, State Department, Research Memorandum for the Secretary of State, December 3, 1962:

> The extensive use of artillery and aerial bombardment and other apparently excessive and indiscriminate measures by GVN (Government of South Vietnam) military and security forces in attempting to eliminate the Viet Cong have undoubtedly killed many innocent peasants and made many others more willing than before to cooperate with the Viet Cong ....

IS-3
POST-WORLD WAR II ISSUES

OVERVIEW

Blacks have had significantly less upward mobility in Boston than immigrants had in equal time periods. That is, given a certain time period after moving to Boston, say forty years, blacks did not move up in class (especially in job level) as much as immigrants did.

Below are several explanations by historians of why blacks did not do as well in moving up in job category as immigrants did after they immigrated into Boston. Following the explanations is some information which may be relevant to the question. Use that information to decide which of the historian's views is the best and explain why.

Examples of job categories:

I. High White Collar:
   Architect, Engineer, Lawyer, Physician, Teacher , Scientist, Banker, Broker.

II. Low White Collar:
   Clerk and Salesman, Accountant, Bank Teller, Bookkeeper, Cashier, Insurance salesman, Mail Carrier, Salesman.

III. Skilled Blue Collar:
   Baker, Carpenter, Fireman, Jeweler, Plumber, Machinist.

IV. Semi-skilled and Service workers (Blue Collar):
   Barber, Bartender, Cook, Janitor, Milkman, Policeman, Servant, Gas Station Attendant, Waiter.

V. Unskilled Laborers and Menial Service Workers (Blue Collar):
   Gardener, Laborer, Lumberjack, Porter.

White collar jobs would tend to be associated with higher income (middle and upper class) people, while unskilled laborers would be associated with lower income (lower class) people.
Write your evaluations here:

Historian	Relevant information which affects it (weaken or strengthen?)	Overall judgment of the view
A		
B		
C		
D		
E		
F		
G		

Strongest viewpoint (explain why):

IS-3
RELEVANT INFORMATION

Table 1 - Relative segregation in housing of blacks and first generation immigrants, 1880-1950. (Shows how segregated blacks were compared to immigrants.)

GROUP	1880	1910	1930	1940
Black	51	64	78	80
English	13	11	15	19
Irish	15	19	26	24
Swedish	27	23	32	31
German	31	31	35	31
Russian (mostly Jewish)	55	48	65	65
Italian	74	66	54	48

Table 2 - Educational attainments of blacks and other groups, 1900-1970

I. Percent attending school, 1900:

Age	Immigrant	Second generation immigrant	Yankee (native white)	Black
10-14	80	92	94	89
15-20	7	23	39	20

II. School years completed (percent), 1940:

School Years	Immigrant	Native white	Black
6 or less	41	6	26
7-8	36	31	39
9-11	9	21	15
12 or more	13	42	20
Median years	7.5	10.8	8.5

III. School years completed and occupational level (percent), 1950

	Irish	Italian	French Canadian	Black
Median school years	8.4	6.1	8.5	9.5
Occupational level:				
White-collar	19%	19%	20%	15%
Skilled	21	25	39	13
Low manual	60	56	41	72

IV. Median school years of blacks relative to total population, 1940-1970

Year	Total Population	Blacks	Black median as percent of city median
1940	8.9	8.3	93%
1950	11.8	9.5	81
1960	12.1	10.5	87
1970	12.4	11.6	94

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Table 3 - Percent of families of blacks and in areas of Boston with females as heads (ie. broken families) in 1880

	Percent with females as heads
Blacks (all of Boston)	16%
South Boston (largely Irish)	18
Back Bay	22
Dorchester	19
South End (largely Irish)	27

Table 4 - Occupational distribution (percent) of black males, 1880-1900

		Occupational Level		
Year	Place of Birth	White collar	Skilled	Low manual
1880	North	9%	19	73
	South	7	9	84
	Foreign	7	12	81
1900	Mass.	12	14	74
	Other North	6	11	83
	South	8	12	80
	Foreign	6	16	78

Table 5 - Occupational distribution (percent) of first-generation immigrants by nationality: men 45 or over, and Yankees, 1950

Occupation	Yankee (all males)	English	Irish	Swedish	German	Russian (mostly Jewish)	Italian
White-collar	48	52	18	16	40	54	18
Blue-collar	52	48	82	84	60	46	82

Table 6 - Occupational distribution (percent) of Irish and Black males by generation, 1880

	Occupational level		
Ethnicity	White-collar	Skilled	Low manual
First generation[1]			
Irish	12%	21	67
Black	7	9	84
Second generation[2]			
Irish	24	24	52
Black	9	19	73

[1] First generation - moved to Boston, born elsewhere (for Blacks, born in the South)

[2] Second generation - born in Boston

Table 7 - Percent of black and white children living with both parents

Year	Blacks	Whites
1970	50.3%	87.9%

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Table 8 - Occupational distribution (percent) of blacks and immigrants, 1890, 1910, 1930

		Occupational Level		
Year	Ethnicity	White-collar	Skilled	Low Manual
1890	First-generation immigrant	18	37	45
	Second-generation immigrant	32	34	34
	Blacks	8	11	81
1910	First-generation immigrant	24	33	43
	Second-generation immigrant	45	21	34
	Blacks	10	8	82
1930	First-generation immigrant	24	30	46
	Blacks	11	12	77

No information on the occupations of Second-generation immigrants was given for 1930.

Table 9 - Fertility (number of children ever born) of black women and all women in Boston, aged 35 to 44.

Year	Black Women	All Women
1960	2.35	2.58
1970	3.41	3.16

Table 10 - Index of relative occupational concentration of blacks, 1900, 1940, 1950. (Index is compared to the population as a whole. 100 means there was the same percentage of blacks in an occupation as for the population as a whole. Higher than 100 means higher concentration, lower than 100 means lower than others.)

Occupation	1900	1940	1950
Unskilled and menial service	347	365	366
Semi-skilled operative	24	63	117

Table 11 - Infant mortality (percent of children who died before reaching age 1) of blacks and whites.

Year	Blacks	Whites
1900	32%	19%

12. Unskilled and menial service jobs are traditional "Negro" jobs. Semiskilled operative jobs demanded no more skills than the "Negro" jobs. In 1940 there was a sudden demand for semiskilled jobs because of World War II.

13. Whites in the same income levels as blacks in 1960 did significantly better in improving in their occupations.

14. Blacks had about the same percentage of broken families as whites with the same income level, in 1960.

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POST-WORLD WAR II ISSUES
RELEVANT INFORMATION

All tables are from U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics

Table 1: Changes in Women's Participation in the Labor Force

	% of women in labor force
1910	20
1920	20
1930	22
1940	25
1950	29
1960	33
1970	38
1979	42

Perspectives on Women Working (1980[illegible] pp. 323

Table 2: Women's Earnings as a % of Men's Earnings

1955	64
1960	61
1965	60
1970	59
1975	59
1977	59
1978	59

Perspectives, p. 52.

Table 3: Birth, Marriage and Divorce Rates per 1,000 Population

	Births	Marriages	Divorces
1910	30.1	10.3	0.9
1920	27.7	12.0	1.6
1930	21.3	9.2	1.6
1940	19.4	12.1	2.0
1950	24.1	11.1	2.6
1960	23.7	8.5	2.2
1970	18.4	10.6	3.5
1978	15.3	10.3	5.1

Statistical Abstracts of the United States (1979), p.60.

Table 4: Life Expectancy and Work-Life Expectancy in Years, by Sex

	Life		Work-Life	
	F	M	F	M
1900	50.7	48.2	6.3	32.1
1940	65.9	61.2	12.1	38.2
1950	71.0	65.5	15.2	41.9
1960	73.1	66.6	20.1	41.4
1970	74.6	67.1	22.9	41.4

Anne Chapman, ed., *Approaches to Women's History* (1979), p.106.

WORLD POWER

TEST QUESTIONS

Section I:

A. Debate: Two people are arguing whether the U.S. should have started fighting the Spanish-American War.

I. George - We should never have fought the Spanish. They didn't provoke us.
II. John - Yes we should. The Spanish blew up the "Maine."
III. George - It was never proven that the Spanish blew it up.
IV. John - Oh come on, you don't really believe they didn't, do you?
V. George - I'm sure it was never conclusively proven.
VI. John - But everyone knows the Spanish blew it up.
VII. George - Well, we're a Christian country so we should follow the Bible. The Bible says to turn the other cheek - not to fight.

____1. What is the conclusion of statement I?
A. We should never have fought the Spanish.
B. They didn't provoke us.
C. We were lucky to win.
D. All of the above.

____2. What is the conclusion of statement VII?
A. We're a Christian country.
B. The Bible says not to fight.
C. We shouldn't have fought.
D. None of the above.

____3. What is a possible fallacy in statement IV?
A. Appeal to the Golden Mean
B. Correlation as Cause
C. Ad Hominem (Attacking the Arguer)
D. Numbers

____4. What is a possible fallacy in statement VI?
A. Prevalent Proof
B. Either-Or
C. False Scenario
D. Straw Man

B. "The U.S. could have stayed out of World War I much longer if we had an embargo on goods shipped to England and Germany. After all, when we did that under similar circumstances in the early 1800's we stayed out of the War of 1812 for five years longer."

____5. What is the conclusion?
A. The U.S. could have stayed out of World War I by having an embargo.
B. An embargo worked before the War of 1812.
C. An embargo kept us out of the War of 1812 for five years.
D. None of the above.

____6. What type of reasoning is this primarily?
A. Proof by Evidence C. Sample
B. Comparison D. Debating

C. "(I) The reason the U.S. got into World War I (II) was because German submarines sank our ships."

____7. What type of reasoning is this primarily?
A. Comparison C. Cause and Effect
B. Sample D. Proof by Evidence

____8. What is the fallacy in this argument?
A. Appeal to Authority C. Appeal to Irrelevant Outcome
B. Stereotyping D. Single Cause

D. "(I) There are several interpretations of why the U.S. entered World War I. (II) Progressives, socialists, pacifists and the Nye Committee believe we entered the war because of economic and psychological reasons. (III) At the other extreme, Walter Lippmann felt we entered the war to preserve a balance of power in Europe and protect American interests there. (IV) The correct interpretation is between these extremes. (V) We can confidently say that the German decision for unrestricted submarine warfare was what forced Wilson into the War."

____9. The conclusion is:
A. I C. III E. V
B. II D. IV F. None of the above

____10. What is a word which makes a value judgment?
A. Reasons C. Extremes E. Warfare
B. Interpretations D. Causes

____11. What is a possible fallacy in this argument?
A. Special Pleading C. Appeal to the Golden Mean E. Numbers
B. Equivocation D. Prevalent Proof

E. "Theodore Roosevelt was a great president in foreign affairs. He took strong stands on foreign policy issues which made our country more powerful."
Rewrite the above argument into premise-premise-conclusion form:

12. Premise -

13. Premise -

14. Conclusion -

TEST QUESTIONS

Section II: Analyze an Argument:

HISTORIAN Z (1934)

(I) The reasons for the U. S. decision to go to war in April, 1917 were many. (II) The most important of these, however, was the attitude of mind in this country - the product of British propaganda. (III) People under the influence of the propaganda came to look upon the struggle of 1914-1918 as a simple conflict between the forces of good and evil. (IV) In the minds of American leaders there developed a blind hatred of everything German. (V) After this hatred had destroyed American neutrality, it created a willingness to sacrifice American youth in war in an attempt to punish the hated nation.

(VI) The propaganda influenced President Wilson to such an extent that he overcame the American desire for peace with his own desire for a British-French victory. (VII) It caused him to be unneutral until it was too late for him to exert pressure to bring about a just peace.

(VIII) In order to remove the causes for German submarine warfare, some Americans desired that pressure be exerted on Great Britain to force her to relax the illegal blockade of the Central Powers (Germany's side). (IX) Wilson, however, refused to do anything which would embarrass the Allies (Britain and France, mainly). (X) Many Americans wanted an embargo on munitions; Wilson objected. (XI) Secretary of State Bryan prohibited loans to the warring nations; Wilson lifted the ban. (XII) Congress tried to pass a bill preventing Americans from traveling on armed ships of the warring nations; Wilson personally defeated the measure. (XIII) The President's partisanship was so apparent that even the British stated: "During the period while America was neutral all the issues in dispute between England and America were decided as England wished."

(XIV) The public was told that the argument with Great Britain about freedom of the seas was concerned with property while that with Germany was concerned with lives. (XV) This served to hide the actual claims on the part of Mr. Wilson which today seem almost fantastic. (XVI) The issue was not the right of Americans to travel on American ships in peaceful waters. (XVII) And no Americans were killed on American ships prior to February, 1917 under circumstances which would have justified war. (XVIII) What he was insisting on, at the price of war, was the right of Americans to travel in the war zone (1) on foreign ships of belligerent nationality (British ships), (2) on foreign ships which were armed, and (3) on foreign ships carrying munitions and other supplies of war. (XIX) Wilson never compromised on these rights. (XX) Once Wilson got us into the War he justified it not as a defense of freedom of the seas, but as a great crusade to end all wars.

(XXI) In the last analysis the American government was forced to join the Allies in 1917 because it had previously surrendered to them all its material, diplomatic, and moral support. (XXII) Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Holland refrained from such unneutral conduct and, in spite of the fact that they suffered a great deal more than did this country, they escaped becoming involved.

(XXIII) Certainly if the U. S. had imitated the self-restraint of these other countries, she also could have remained at peace. (XXIV) The reason she did not act in the same way was because of the tremendously effective British propaganda campaign. (XXV) In Europe the agents of British propaganda had to compete with the propagandists of Germany and the other Central Powers. (XXVI) In the U. S., however, they had a free field. (XXVII) This climate of opinion influenced finance, industry, and government.

(XXVIII) To some, the history of the "neutrality" period demonstrates that the U. S. cannot keep out of war. (XXIX) But the facts do not bear out any such contention. (XXX) What it does prove is that it is impossible to be unneutral and keep out of war.

____15. What is the main point of this argument?
A. British propaganda was wrong.
B. President Wilson was not really neutral - he insisted on ridiculous rights for Americans.
C. British propaganda pushed America into the War.
D. The United States should have given more support to Germany and the other Central Powers.

____16. What is an unstated assumption in the argument?
A. Propaganda can influence a country to take unneutral actions.
B. The British had a free field to use propaganda in the U.S.
C. Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Holland were all able to remain neutral during the War.
D. Presidents can insist on citizens' rights.

What type of reasoning is each of the following sentences or quoted phrases from the argument?

A. Sample	C. Cause and Effect
B. Comparison	D. Proof by Example

____17. "The mind of this country" hated Germany.

____18. American attitudes toward Germany were the product of British propaganda.

____19. Sentences IX-XII.

____20. "Many Americans wanted an embargo."

____21. Sentences XXII-XXIII.

22. What question would you ask of the reasoning in sentences XXII-XXIII?

____23. In which sentence is evidence presented?

A. VI	C. XIX
B. XIII	D. XXV

____24. Which of the following pieces of information best supports Historian 2's argument?
A. American bankers loaned money to England to invest their money profitably.
B. Secretary of State Bryan was opposed to loaning money to England.
C. President Wilson was outraged by German acts of inhumanity in Belgium. The events in Belgium were reported British agents and correspondents.
D. President Wilson was very upset when Americans were killed on British ships. These ships were sunk by German U-boats.

DEPRESSION ERA

TEST QUESTIONS

A. (I) "The New Deal programs were radical. (II) After all, look at all the programs to help the unemployed and poor at the expense of the taxpayers."

_____1. The conclusion is:
A. I C. The taxpayers were cheated by the government.
B. II D. The unemployed were helped by the New Deal.

_____2. What type of reasoning is this primarily?
A. Comparison C. Cause and Effect
B. Sample D. Debating

_____3. What is the assumption in this argument?
A. All government programs are radical.
B. The New Deal was a failure.
C. Government programs to help the poor at the expense of the taxpayers are radical.
D. The government should not have programs.

B. (I) "Getting off the Gold Standard in the 1930's was a big mistake which hurt our economy. (II) After all, staying on the Gold Standard helps keep the supply of money stable, (III) which, in the long run, prevents inflation."

_____4. What is the conclusion?
A. I C. III
B. II D. The Gold Standard is a good idea.

_____5. What is the assumption?
A. The Gold Standard made us prosperous in the 1920's.
B. A stable supply of money is an important factor to having a good economy.
C. When the economy is weak, the supply of money isn't stable.
D. Staying on the Gold Standard helps international trade.

C. (I) "I checked on your theory that the New Deal was a communist conspiracy. (II) Frank Friedel, a noted expert on the New Deal says that there were few communists in the New Deal, and that few programs were designed to communize the economy."

_____6. The conclusion is:
A. I C. Frank Friedel ought to know his stuff.
B. II D. The New Deal was a good program.
E. None of the above

_____7. What type of reasoning is this?
A. Comparison C. Cause and Effect E. Proof by Authority
B. Sample D. Proof by Example

D. (I) "By 1936 the New Deal helped the country to begin to recover from the Great Depression. (II) National income had risen from $47 billion in 1932 to $70 billion in 1936, while industrial production had doubled in the same time period. (III) Unemployment fell from 12 million in 1932 to 9 million in 1936."

____8. The conclusion is:
A. I C. III
B. II D. All of the above

____9. Name two types of reasoning used in this argument:

____10. What is a possible fallacy in this argument?
A. False Scenario C. Correlation as Cause
B. Negative Proof D. Straw Man

E. (I) "The main reason for the Great Depression was the uneven distribution of wealth in the 1920's. (II) Most people prospered in the 1920's, but rich people prospered much more. (III) In 1929 rich people had a higher percentage of the total wealth of the country than they had had in 1920. (IV) Since the poorer classes did not have as much money as they could otherwise have had, (V) these poorer people couldn't buy the surplus goods that were produced. (VI) The country was left with overproduction which plunged it into the depression."

____11. The conclusion is:
A. I C. III E. V G. Money should be more
B. II D. IV F. VI evenly distributed.

____12. What type of reasoning is this primarily?
A. Comparison C. Cause and Effect
B. Debating D. Proof

____13. What is an unstated assumption in this argument?
A. The rich get richer and the poor get poorer.
B. Rich people spend more of their money producing goods, and poor people spend more of their money consuming goods.
C. Rich people control the government—they snap their fingers and the government jumps.
D. Surplus goods hurt the poor.

DEPRESSION ERA

TEST QUESTIONS

F. (I) "By the 1930's, the U. S. was almost the only advanced country in the world which did not have social welfare programs to protect its citizens against unemployment or other disasters. (II) While millions of families were destitute in the early 1930's, the government seemed indifferent to their problems. (III) President Roosevelt was determined to do something to end this neglect. (IV) Under the New Deal, he started a long overdue unemployment insurance program and a pension plan for people over 65."

_____14. This historian is most likely:
- A. Favorable to Roosevelt
- B. Unfavorable to Roosevelt
- C. Neutral regarding Roosevelt
- D. Has no opinion regarding Roosevelt

_____15. What general attitude does this historian have regarding the role of the government in society?
- A. Laissez-faire; government should not be involved.
- B. The government should be involved in regulating business but not in social programs.
- C. The government should be active in social programs.
- D. The government should be involved in both regulating business and in social programs.

_____16. What is a word which makes a value judgment in sentence II?
- A. Millions
- B. Families
- C. Government
- D. Indifferent
- E. Their

_____17. What is a word which makes a value judgment in sentence IV?
- A. Started
- B. Overdue
- C. Insurance
- D. Pension plan
- E. People

_____18. What is an assumption in this view?
- A. The government usually messes things up.
- B. Poor people should be helped by the government.
- C. Government help for the destitute helps economic growth.
- D. The U. S. government could not afford to help the poor through social welfare programs before the 1930's.

COLD WAR

TEST QUESTIONS

Section I - Read the introduction and then answer the questions which follow:

Introduction - There are two basic viewpoints on the Soviet occupation of Eastern Europe in the 1940's. These viewpoints are:

REVISIONISTS: The USSR had legitimate Security interests in eastern Europe (to defend against possible future attacks from Europe) which they conveyed to the US during and after World War II. The US, however, especially after Truman became president, attempted to deny the USSR her special interests in eastern Europe (even while the US had a sphere of influence in Latin America). This opposition by the US led the Soviets to clamp down on eastern Europe in protection against American threats and helped cause the Cold War.

TRADITIONALISTS: The USSR had some limited security interests in eastern Europe but used these interests as an excuse to dominate eastern European countries as police states. Soviet domination of and brutality in eastern Europe revolted the world and led to U. S. protection of other states in Europe from Soviet aggression.

Relevant Information:

1. Roosevelt was president until April 1945; Truman was president April 1945 to 1953.
2. Having special security interests in an area would mean that that power would have a sphere of influence in the area.

A. (I) Under Roosevelt the US recognized the Soviet sphere in eastern Europe which encouraged the Soviets to establish their sphere of influence there. (II) Then under Truman, the US told the USSR that she was opposed to the Soviet sphere.

____1. What is the conclusion?
A. I   C. The US caused the problems in eastern Europe.
B. II   D. Truman should have continued Roosevelt's policy of recognizing the Soviet zone.

____2. What is a possible fallacy?
A. Prevalent Proof   C. Straw Man
B. Correlation as Cause   D. Either/Or

____3. This argument:
A. Supports the revisionist view.   C. Weakens both.
B. Supports the traditionalists.   D. Is irrelevant.

B. Suppose you found this evidence:

Secretary of State Byrnes in a speech on October 31, 1945 said that the US recognized the USSR's "special security interests" in eastern Europe.

____4. Which view does this new evidence support?
A. Revisionists C. Both
B. Traditionalists D. Irrelevant

5. Explain why: (for question 4)

____6. What is a weakness of this evidence?

What are two strengths of this evidence?

7. Strength:

8. Strength:

C. Suppose you found this evidence:

Charles Bohlen, special assistant to Secretary of State Byrnes, in a memo of October 18, 1945 said that while the US did not want to deny the Soviets a sphere of influence in eastern Europe, the US was alarmed that Stalin was seeking "complete Soviet domination and control over all phases" of life in eastern Europe.

____9. This evidence has the following effect on the interpretations:
A. Significantly weakens the revisionist view.
B. Weakens the revisionist view to a minor degree.
C. Major support for the revisionist view.
D. Minor support for the revisionist view.
E. Not relevant to the arguments in the interpretations.

____10. In terms of US beliefs and policies on eastern Europe this evidence is:
A. Strong B. Weak

11. Give reason:

____12. In terms of whether the Soviets dominated eastern Europe this evidence is:
A. Strong B. Weak

13. Give reason:

D. Suppose in the last evidence (the memo), Bohlen went on to say that the US had to show the Soviets that there was a difference between domination of one area and a legitimate sphere of influence limited to influence over foreign policy of countries in an area. For example, the US would "forbid the conclusion of military and political alliances between a Latin American state and a European or Asiatic power." But it did not on the basis of that right attempt to dominate the whole internal life of that Latin American state.

____14. This evidence has the following effect on the interpretations:
A. Shows that a traditionalist generalization is weak.
B. Shows that a revisionist generalization is weak.
C. Shows that Soviet claims to security interests were not legitimate.
D. Shows that the analogy in the revisionist view is weak.
E. Is irrelevant to the interpretations.

E. Suppose you found this evidence:

Stalin, 1945: "This war is not as in the past; whoever occupies a territory also imposes his own social system."

____15. This evidence:

A. Supports the idea that the USSR had some legitimate security interests in eastern Europe.
B. Weakens the view that the Soviets did not dominate eastern Europe.
C. Weakens the view that the Soviets had some legitimate security interests in eastern Europe.
D. Supports the idea that the Soviets clamped down only after US opposition to a sphere of influence in eastern Europe.

16. How strong is this evidence? Explain:

F. Suppose you found this evidence:

In 1945 in all of the eastern European countries the Soviets allowed coalition governments of four political parties, only one of which was Communist.

____17. This evidence has the following effect on the interpretations:

A. Significantly weakens the revisionist view.
B. Weakens the revisionist view to a minor degree.
C. Major support for the revisionist view.
D. Minor support for the revisionist view.
E. Not relevant to the arguments in the interpretations.

G. Suppose, relevant to F, you then found this evidence:

Within one year all the representatives of all the parties were people who cooperated with Communism. In all the countries from the first day of Soviet occupation the most important ministries in the government, the armies, and the police were controlled by the Communists.

____18. This evidence has the following effect on the interpretations:

A. Significantly weakens the revisionist view.
B. Weakens the revisionist view to a minor degree.
C. Major support for the revisionist view.
D. Minor support for the revisionist view.
E. Not relevant to the arguments in the interpretations.

19. How do you account for the difference in documents F & G?

____20. All of the above documents (A-G) lead to the interpretation that:

A. The Soviets did not have legitimate security interests in eastern Europe, and Byrnes and Bohlen realized it.

B. The US tried to get the Soviets to agree to an "open sphere" of influence in eastern Europe, but the Soviets were determined to have it as a closed sphere (ie. domination of the countries).

C. The US felt guilty about its own sphere of influence in Latin America so American leaders agreed to Soviet domination of eastern Europe. Then we decided we couldn't stand that domination and showed our opposition to it.

D. The Soviets would not recognize US interests in Latin America, so the US did not recognize Soviet interests in eastern Europe.

21. What is a possible weakness in this interpretation? (The interpretation is the answer you put for question 20.)

Section II - Germany and the Origins of the Cold War:

____22. The Traditionalists say the USSR threatened the U.S. and ruined Germany which forced the U.S. to build up Germany in defense. The Revisionists say the U.S. built up Germany (which Russia feared) which brought on the Cold War. What type of reasoning does each side use primarily?
A. Comparison C. Proof by Example
B. Sample D. Cause and Effect

____23. For the argument above, what is the most important thing to find out?
A. Did Russia really fear Germany?
B. Should Russia have feared Germany?
C. In what order did these events happen?
D. Did Russia have a good reason to ruin Germany?

____24. The Traditionalists argue that the U.S. was justified in cutting off reparations from Germany to the USSR. The Traditionalists argue that though the reparations were promised in the Potsdam Protocol, the US was right to cut them off because the USSR had failed to carry out other parts of the agreement. A statement by American general in Germany, Lucius Clay, that he had to cut off reparations to the USSR is cited to support this argument. What, if anything, is weak about this source?
A. It's a secondary source.
B. The author has a conflict of interest.
C. The author didn't really know what had happened.
D. No weakness.

____25. What fallacy, if any, is there in the following Revisionist argument: "In light of the weakened Soviet economy, the only possibilities for the Soviets to achieve post-war reconstruction of their nation was to get a loan from the U.S. or obtain heavy reparations from Germany. The U.S. didn't give them the loan, so the Soviets had to take out the heavy reparations."
A. Unrepresentative Sample C. Straw Man E. Either/Or
B. Correlation as Cause D. Prevalent Proof

Section III

A. Divide the following argument into factual and values parts and think of analogous cases to test the values part:

"Stalin and Churchill made a deal in 1944 in which Britain was to control Greece, and Russia was to control Rumania and Bulgaria. Stalin stuck to the deal and did not interfere in Greece. So Stalin was justified in keeping Rumania and Bulgaria under Soviet control."

26. Conclusion:

27. Factual:

28. Value judgment:

29. Case where this judgment might be wrong:

B. (I) "Three major forces contend for power in today's El Salvador. (II) They are: the extreme leftist Marxist-Leninist communists; the extreme right-wing coalition of commercial interests, the military and landed aristocracy; and the governing moderates under Jose Napoleon Duarte. (III) Clearly the US should support the moderates under Duarte, rather than the extremists."

____30. What is the conclusion:
A. I C. III
B. II D. All of the above.

____31. What is a word which makes a value judgment in this argument?
A. Commercial
B. Power
C. Governing
D. Extreme

____32. What is a fallacy in this argument?
A. Appeal to the Golden Mean
B. Negative Proof
C. Hasty Generalization
D. Single Cause

C. Decide whether each case below attacks Allen's position (mark A); attacks Betty's position (mark B); or does not clearly attack either position (mark N).

ALLEN: "The US should not give economic aid to every country all over the world. Just because a country has a few poor people doesn't mean it needs aid. Each country should take care of its own poor people."

BETTY: "Countries such as the US, which have more wealth than other countries, should use some of their resources to help needy countries."

____33. Case 1: Suppose Russia attacked Saudi Arabia and took over the oil fields. Should we continue to sell electronic equipment to the Soviets?

____34. Case 2: Suppose Buro Buro, a poor country, has just been hit by a hurricane which has wiped out its economy and caused a lot of people to starve.

____35. Case 3: Suppose a poor country received millions of dollars of US aid, but the rich people kept it all.

____36. Case 4: Suppose a poor country took aid it received from the US and sold it to another country to get materials to make a nuclear bomb.

____37. Which word in Betty's statement would most likely raise the most difficult meaning (or definitional) problems?
A. Countries C. Resources
B. Needy D. Help

____38. In case 3 what is a word which makes a value judgment?
A. Rich C. Received E. Fair
B. Aid D. Poor

POST-WORLD WAR II ISSUES

TEST QUESTIONS

A. Reporter - (To one of the crew of the "Columbia" shuttle before its second trip). "Isn't being in the shuttle for the second trip more dangerous? After all, it's a used spaceship now."

Astronaut - (I) "No, it isn't more dangerous. (II) It's like a new car that has been driven around the block. (III) Now the bugs have been worked out of it."

____1. What is the conclusion of the astronaut's argument?
A. I C. III
B. II D. Getting the bugs out is important.

____2. What is an unstated assumption of the astronaut?
A. Driving around the block is bad for the tires.
B. New cars are better than used cars.
C. Getting the bugs out is more important than having a new vehicle.
D. The shuttle is less dangerous this time.

____3. What type of reasoning did the astronaut use primarily?
A. Comparison C. Sample
B. Proof by Authority D. Cause and Effect

____4. The reporter suggests that the second trip might be more dangerous. What is the key word in his argument?

5. What is the key question which you would ask of the astronaut's argument?

B. "In 1932 we elected the Democrat Roosevelt and during his administration we got into World War II. Then we had the Democrat Truman and the Korean War. In the 1960's we had the Democrats Kennedy and Johnson and wound up in the Vietnam War. Can we afford another Democrat?"

____6. What is the conclusion?
A. Roosevelt got us into World War II.
B. Democrats cause the United States to get into wars.
C. Republicans keep the United States out of wars.
D. Since 1932 the United States has been in three wars.

____7. What is a possible fallacy?
A. False Scenario C. Appeal to Irrelevant Outcome
B. Correlation as Cause D. Negative Proof

____8. Suppose you found some information that the United States was involved in wars when several Republicans were president. What would the fallacy be in this argument?
A. Irrelevant Proof C. Numbers
B. Ad Hominem (Attacking the Arguer) D. Special Pleading
E. Begging the Question

C. (On the issue of tuition tax credits, (public assistance) to families who send their children to private schools). (I) "If you want to join a private country club, as opposed to a public one, that is your privilege. (II) But, you don't expect your neighbor to foot the bill. (III) Why should those who decide to send their children to private schools rather than public ones receive assistance from their neighbors?"

____9. What is the conclusion?
A. I
B. II
C. III
D. Tuition tax credits (public assistance) are wrong.

____10. What type of reasoning is used in this argument?
A. Comparison
B. Sample
C. Cause and Effect
D. Proof by Evidence

____11. Explain how strong this argument is:

SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR TO VIETNAM

BOOKLET 4

Critical Thinking
In
American History

Critical Thinking in
American History:

BOOKLET 4

SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR
TO
VIETNAM

by
KEVIN O'REILLY

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Student Booklet 4
Spanish-American War to Vietnam
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INTRODUCTION FOR STUDENTS

Did you ever wonder why you study history or what you hope to learn from it? Many high school students think they study history to learn "the facts." Certainly, there is some value in studying information or "the facts." But studying the facts with no understanding is pointless. If we couldn't think about or see the connections between facts in history, then the information would be of little value. So even if you have a good memory and what you like in history is the facts, you still have to be able to think about and use them in order for facts to be any good to you.

There is more to history than information, however. There is also the "why" of history. We all would like to explain why certain things happen the way they do. When a historian studies a topic, he/she breaks it down and examines why it happened the way it did. This is called analytical history.

Another part of history arises when historians disagree. When historians have differing viewpoints or interpretations of a topic they weigh their arguments against each other. They debate in historical journals about which viewpoint is stronger. Deciding how good a historical argument is involves a lot of careful thinking. To start out, one question you might want to ask is, how good are the viewpoints presented in your textbook?

So history is a lot more than just "the facts." Most of history involves thinking. In summary, it involves three types of thinking:

1. Seeing the connections between the facts,

2. Analyzing why things happen the way they do, and

3. Evaluating historical viewpoints.

These aspects make up what we'll call historical thinking. If you ask yourself what you'd like to remember from your history course ten years from now, you'd probably agree that you'd rather know how to think better than just know some facts. The Project on History and Logic is designed to help you develop your historical thinking by analyzing historical arguments in a deliberate, organized and sequential way.

"GUIDE TO CRITICAL THINKING"

This *Guide* is intended to help you to better judge arguments that you read or hear from historians, your friends, your parents, news reporters, or other people. An argument (or an interpretation) as used in this *Guide* refers to the act of presenting a conclusion someone wishes to make and backing it up with reasons that logically lead to the conclusion. You have to decide for yourself how strong the argument is.

Arguments or interpretations are made up of three parts:

1. **Evidence** - facts or information which the author uses to back his/her points.
2. **Values** - the underlying beliefs of the author about what is good or important.
3. **Logic** (or reasoning) - the reasoning used by the author to arrive at his/her conclusions.

In a sense, the author of an argument constructs his/her position as someone might construct a building. The author's values are like the foundation, the evidence is like the bricks that comprise the walls, and the logic is like cement which holds the bricks together and forms them into a particular pattern. Just as when you look at a building you want to look at the whole structure first, so too when you look at an argument you want to get the main point (or conclusion) first. Then you want to break the argument down (analyze) into its parts and evaluate the parts against certain standards of excellence of reasoning and evidence.

I. EVIDENCE

A. What is Evidence?

Evidence is the information which a historian or author presents to support his/her argument.

It is only when we know the sources of the evidence that we can judge (evaluate) how good the evidence actually is. There are three sources for evidence:

1. *Statements by witnesses or other people.*
2. *Documents* (*written information*).
3. *Objects.*

B. Evidence in Arguments:

1. There are three possibilities for how a historian backs up an argument:

   a. No evidence - when a historical argument has no evidence to support its points, you should not be convinced by it. Even if the reasoning in the argument seems very strong, you should not support the viewpoint until you see some evidence on the topic (that is, you should suspend judgment). You should always ask yourself, "What is his/her evidence?"

   b. Factual information (sourceless evidence) - when a historian does not give the source for his/her evidence, you really have no way to judge how strong the evidence is. You might say that the historian has given factual information or examples, but not evidence. Factual information, unlike opinions, could be proven true or false (verified) if you wanted to do the research to check on it. In some cases you will want to do this. But this is different from what you do when you judge evidence for which the source is given.

   c. Evidence - when the source of the information is given you have the opportunity to make some judgments about the evidence presented. You will always be better off by researching further to check on the evidence, but when the source is presented, you can make some judgments before you do more research. You'll know a viewpoint contains evidence (as opposed to information) when the author refers to statements by people, written information, or objects to support his/her arguments.

2. The examples below show the different possibilities for evidence:

   Topic - Karen and the softball team:

   a. "Karen is a very good softball player, in fact, the best on our team." (no evidence).

b. "Karen is the best softball player on our team. She hit .340 for the season and made only two errors playing second base." (Factual information because this information could be checked, but we have no way of judging the evidence without checking).

c. "Karen is the best softball player on our team. Coach Berg said she was the best fielder and the scorebook shows she hit .340 for the season." (Evidence because the source is given. We could ask whether Coach Berg is a primary source, has a reason to distort, and so forth).

Topic - Reconstruction governments:

a. "Reconstruction governments in the South were so corrupt that the South was ruined by them." (No evidence).

b. "Reconstruction governments in the South were terribly corrupt. South Carolina's debt was increased tremendously. In Arkansas a Negro was given $9,000 for repairing a bridge which had originally cost $500. Other Southern states had the same thing happen." (These are examples of factual information. Statistics can be checked, but we cannot evaluate them without the source. Statistics themselves don't lie, but the people who put them down to make a point frequently distort them. We need to know who recorded these statistics, for what reason, and so forth).

c. "Reconstruction governments in the South were terribly corrupt. For example, right in the records of the South Carolina legislature is recorded a vote to give the Speaker an extra $1,000 to pay for his efficient service right after (according to his diary) he had lost $1,000 on a horse race." (Evidence because the source is given the records of the legislature and the diary).

Once you know that there is evidence you can judge it according to the following factors:

P - Is it a **primary** (eyewitness) or secondary (not an eyewitness source? (Primary is better).

R - Does the person giving the statements or writing the documents have any **reason** to distort, cover up, give false impressions or lie? (No reason to distort is better).

O - Are there **other** witnesses or statements of the same event which report it the same way? (Having other statements saying the same thing is better).

P - Is it a public or **private** statement? It is public if the person giving it knew other people would hear it, or intended that other people should hear it. (Private is generally better).

So when you have identified the evidence in an argument, you can give it the **PROP** analysis. These four factors for judging evidence will be enough to help you evaluate most evidence you will see. However, there are other factors, should you need them:

A. The Witness:

1. What is the frame of reference (point of view) of the witness? What are his/her values? What is his/her background?
2. Is the witness an expert or recognized authority on what he/she saw?
3. How soon after the event did the witness report it?
4. Did the witness use precise techniques or tools to report the event? For example, did he/she take notes or use reference points?

B. The Observation Conditions:

1. Did the witness have good conditions to see the event? (Was it foggy, noisy, dark?)
2. What was the physical location of the witness to the event? Was he/she close to the action? Were there objects (i.e. buildings) blocking his/her path?

C. The Witness' Statement: (The Document)

1. Does the witness believe that his/her statement could be checked out? If I believe you can check my story with other witnesses, I am more likely to tell the truth.

2. Is what the witness says an observation ("Mary smiled") or an inference ("Mary was happy")? Since inferences are judgments they can reveal a lot to you about the witness' point of view or motives for his/her statements.

3. Is the document authentic or a forgery? What is the reputation of the source containing the document?

II. VALUES

A. What is a value?

Values are conditions which the author of an argument believes are intrinsically good, or thinks are important or worthwhile. Examples of things people value are: money, success, friendship, love, health, peace, power, freedom, equality. It is often important to discover what the underlying values are of the author of an argument. This will help you understand why the viewpoint is argued the way it is. In some cases, your values may be different from the author's values, which will help you understand why you disagree with the argument. For example, if you believe that peace is generally more important than demonstrating power, then you are going to disagree with an argument which says that since country A increased its power by attacking country B, it was right to attack.

B. Values in arguments:

1. The values of the author are revealed in an argument by words which make value judgments. Sentences containing words such as "good, "bad," "right," "wrong," "justified," "should," "should [illegible]" are usually making value judgments. For example, if someone says "The U. S was wrong (value judgment) to drop the atomic bomb on Hiroshima because so many people were killed," he/she is saying that life (value) is more important than the other conditions or values involved (power, peace vs. war, etc.).

2. When you have identified a value judgment in an argument, you can then examine it by:

   a. Separating the argument into the factual and value parts.
   b. Stating the value part in a general way.
   c. Asking yourself whether this value position would be right in all instances (cases). Think of cases to see if the value would be right for them.

   For example, suppose someone said:

   "We should have capital punishment because criminals will commit fewer crimes if they think they might be executed (killed by the government)".

   You would do the following:

   a. Factual part - "Executing criminals will cause criminals to commit fewer crimes." (Notice that this could be checked on by getting statistics on the number of crimes with and without capital punishment, or other methods). This was mentioned in the section on evidence in this "Guide."

   b. Values part stated in general terms - "Something (notice the general word) which causes fewer crimes should (value judgment) be done."

   c. Is this a good idea in all cases? You could bring up specific cases such as:

   "Putting into jail anyone who has ever been a defendant in a criminal case, whether found innocent or guilty, will cause fewer crimes also. Should we do this?"

Now we know that just because something (capital punishment) causes fewer crimes to be committed doesn't mean that we should necessarily do it. There are other things (like rights, innocence) to consider. The person who made the statement (if you are discussing an issue directly with him/her) might have to modify it to

"We should have capital punishment under strict safeguards to protect innocent people, because it will make criminals commit fewer crimes."

You could now bring up new cases to get the author to examine his/her value position further.

The object of this strategy is not to embarass or humiliate the other person but rather to get everyone to examine the value positions in more detail.

C. Other values judgments and emotional language:

Sometimes the author of an argument will use specific words (rather than "right," "wrong" etc.) to describe a situation which reveals value judgments. Again, these reveal the author's point of view or position on the things described. For example, the following two sentences tell you something about the points of view of the authors:

1. "The lazy government official needlessly interfered with the running of the dynamically expanding business."

2. "The representative of the public's interest was finally able to control the pollution of the greedy monopoly."

These are extreme examples, but they show how authors can use words to paint the good guys and the bad guys. It is not hard to see that the first author supports the business against government, and the second author supports the government against the business.

Words such as those in the two examples above and others such as "terrific," "terrible," "intellectual," "egghead," "pushy," and "go getter," show the author's point of view. You should try to identify the use of this type of emotional language.

When it appears, it shows that the author is emotionally involved in the topic (he/she may not be as objective as he/she should be) or that the author is trying to sway the reader through an emotional response. We should not be swayed to accept an argument through emotion, but rather through reasoning and evidence.

III. LOGIC OR REASONING

A. What is logic or reasoning?

Without logic or reasoning, humans would make no advances in life. Reasoning is one of the most important characteristics separating humans from animals. Logic or reasoning is the process of reaching a conclusion on the basis of available information or experience. It is the way an author tries to prove his point.

This section of the *Guide* includes information on various parts of logic or reasoning and gives you tips on what to look for in each part.

B. Main points and conclusions:

1. The first thing that you should do when you read an argument is identify the main point. The **main point** is what the author of a long argument (more than one paragraph) is trying to prove. You can't judge an argument until you first figure out what the author is trying to prove. A **conclusion** is what the author of a short argument (one paragraph or less) is trying to prove.

   A premise is a statement which presents evidence or reasons for the conclusion of the argument. (It is the part other than the conclusion). We will use the word premise in the worksheets, but we are concerned mostly with finding the conclusion.

2. You can find the conclusion or a main point by asking yourself, "What is the author trying to convince me of?" You can often also locate the conclusion by using the cue words below, especially "therefore." Ask, "Therefore, what?"

3. Cue words:

Conclusions	Premises
therefore	since
then	if
so	because
thus	

C. Words:

1. As you can see in the sections on values and conclusions, the words an author uses can reveal something about his/her values, or cue you about the parts of an argument. In addition, historians should be careful to define words they use in arguments. Some words present problems when we try to define them. For example: "Bald" - how bald is bald? 100 hairs? 2 hairs? no hairs? Where a word is subject to several meanings, the historian should define how he/she is using it.

2. In some cases word usage is the key to assessing how good a historical argument is. There are some fallacies associated with words, among which are:

   a. Jargon- the needless use of big words to make the argument sound more impressive. The key word is needless." for in some instances big words are necessary to explain the argument.

   b. Equivocation - the use of a key term in two or more senses in the same argument. For example, "How can people oppose Communism, when we are all communists (since we all share to some extent)?"

D. Assumptions and Inferences:

1. An assumption is something which is not stated but which is taken for granted by the author. We will say that something which is taken for granted but is stated is not an assumption but just a statement which lacks evidence. Unstated assumptions are the middle or

general premise in an argument. You can find them by rewriting a short argument into premise-premise-conclusion form. For example, if someone said:

> "We should spend our vacation in the mountains because we need a rest."

We could rephrase it as:

Premise - We need a rest.

Premise (Assumption) - Vacations in the mountains provide rests.

Conclusion - We should spend our vacation in the mountains.

Notice that the second premise is the assumption and that it is stated in general terms - "vacations."

2. An inference is a conclusion that goes beyond the evidence upon which it is based. It is drawn from the evidence. By knowing certain facts, we can make an educated guess or infer that something else is true. For example, if you walked into a room and there were twenty people there who yelled "suprise!" and started singing "happy birthday," you could infer that this is your birthday, that there will be a cake later, and so on. Or, if you saw a person frowning, you might infer that he/she is angry. The reasoning here is:

Premise: That person is frowning.

Premise: People who frown are angry.

Conclusion (inference): That person is angry.

The inference is the conclusion.

You need to learn to make reasonable inferences (a well-developed skill among historians) and to judge how good the inferences are that are made by historians or other authors. Many times people make incorrect inferences because of faulty assumptions.

For example:

> "I knew Tom was a drinker when he told me he was Irish."

The faulty assumption that all Irishmen are drinkers led to the unwarranted (possibly incorrect) inference that Tom is a drinker.

E. Types of Reasoning Used in History:

1. There are basically five kinds of reasoning used in history. Once you can identify these types of reasoning, then you can judge them against key questions for each type. These questions will help you see strong points, find weak points, or identify downright errors (or fallacies) in logic in the argument. You need to remember that in most arguments, even short ones, there are several types of reasoning being used.

2. Types of reasoning:

   a. Comparison (Analogy) - this type of reasoning compares two similar cases and reasons that what is true for one is true for the other. Watch, sometimes, for the cue word "like" to show an analogy.

   Examples:

   "Harry did all his homework and got an "A" in history. If I do all my homework, I'll get an "A," too."

   "Tracy set up her factory this way and it increased the speed of her assembly line. If I do the same, I'll increase the speed of my assembly line."

   b. Sample (Generalization) - this type of reasoning reasons that what is true for some part (or sample) of the group will be true for the whole group.

   Examples:

   A person takes a bite (sample) of pizza and says, "it's cold" (whole group).

A student who studies the corrupt Tweed Ring in New York City in the 1870's (sample - 1 case), concludes that there was a lot of corruption in American cities in the 1800's (whole group).

When you see general terms (plural nouns) like "people," "countries," "wars" consider that the author is making a generalization. How many people, countries, causes, or wars were sampled?

Two types of generalizations are called hard and soft generalizations. **Hard generalizations** deal with all (or none) of the members of a group. "All the apples have fallen off the tree." This type is disproven by one counter example (contrary case). **Soft generalizations** deal with most (or a few) of the members of a group. "Most people remember Vietnam." This is not disproven by one or even several contrary cases, but as the contrary cases add up, the generalization is weakened. Historians do some of their research on specific cases (like "White Collar Mobility in Nineteenth Century San Francisco") in order to test the worthiness of generalizations.

c. Cause and effect - this type of reasoning argues that something caused (or will cause) or brought about - something else. This type of reasoning is involved with the connections between causes and effects.

Examples:

You see a flame (cause) under a pan of water, so you conclude it will boil (effect).

A historian argues that the main cause for the U. S. to enter into World War I was German submarines sinking so many ships.

A doctor sees that you have a fever and are coughing (effects) and concludes you have a virus (cause). He/she will then run tests to verify his/her reasoning.

Cue words for cause and effect reasoning are "cause," "reason for," "led to," "prevented."

d. Proof - this type of reasoning uses evidence or logic to prove the argument. Almost all arguments use some form of proof reasoning. When you cannot identify the argument as being a comparison, sample, cause and effect or debating (described below) then it probably is a proof argument. There are several ways of using proof reasoning:

1. Using evidence (or lack of evidence) to prove the point.
2. Using authority, or appeal to a moderate view, or emotion to prove the point.
3. Eliminating alternatives to prove the point.

For example, the prosecuting attorney might say, "Only Hodges and Simpson had a motive to commit the crime but Hodges was in Bermuda at the time, so Simpson must have done it." The prosecutor has eliminated alternatives to arrive at his/her conclusion.

Examples:

(Evidence) "Records from New Orleans show that slave sales broke up many slave families."

(Authority) "Mrs Harney, a recognized expert on this subject, has shown that social class is not the most important reason."

(Eliminating Alternatives) "As has been shown, social class was not the key to voting behavior. Morever, people did not vote based on issues or the candidates' personalities. This leaves only religious and ethnic factors to explain voting patterns." (Notice that this also uses cause and effect and sample reasoning, and that all the alternatives have not been elminated).

e. Debating - this type of reasoning refers to or talks about what another person (historian in an issue on history) said about the same topic.

It basically tells you what the other people said, and gives you an argument about why the other people are wrong or partially wrong. Debating is done quite frequently at the beginning of articles in historical journals. The authors of the articles then go on to use the other four types of reasoning to show why their arguments should be accepted.

Example:

"The theory that the U. S. entered into World War I to make the world safe for democracy is weak for several reasons."

("The theory" refers to another viewpoint by a different historian.)

F. Key Questions:

1. For each type of reasoning there are key questions which will help you to judge how good the reasoning is.
2. Key questions for each type of reasoning:
   a. Comparison (Analogy):

      Are the two cases compared similar enough to make the conclusion a good one?

   b. Sample (Generalization):

      Is the sample a good one? Is it large enough or representative enough to make the conclusion a good one?

   c. Cause and effect:

      Does the author really show the connection between the cause and the effect? Has the author considered all the possible connections or causes?

   d. Proof:

      Does the evidence or the argument make the conclusion a good one? Have all the alternatives been eliminated in this type of reasoning?

   e. Debating:

      Does the author of this argument give good enough reasons for disproving or weakening the other argument? Does he/she attack the other view in a fair way?

G. **Fallacies in History:**

1. Once you have identified the types of reasoning involved in an argument and asked yourself the key questions for the types of reasoning involved, you can get an idea of some of the strengths and weaknesses of the argument. From there you can also identify any fallacies (errors in logic) that might have been involved in the argument. The fallacies below are arranged according to the five types of reasoning. All you have to do is look under the types of reasoning you've identified in order to find the possible fallacies involved. For example, if you've concluded that the argument you're analyzing is a combination of sample and cause and effect reasoning, you would ask the key questions for those two types and then look at the fallacies under those two types only.

2. Fallacies (or errors) in reasoning:

   a. **Comparison (Analogy) Fallacies:**

   No specific fallacies. The key question takes care of the fallacies.

   b. **Sample (Generalization) Fallacies:**

   1. **Unrepresentative Sample** (or **Hasty Generalization**) - A conclusion based on a sample which has too few examples or which does not represent the whole group well. This includes oversimplications, such as "If it were not for bankers, we wouldn't have wars."

   Example:

   A reporter asks three people in Massachusetts if they support gun control. They all answer yes. So he/she concludes, "Everyone in Massachusetts supports gun control."

   Sometimes only a single case is used to make a generalization. Watch for "for example," or "for instance."

   2. **Stereotyping** (or **Composition** or **Division**) A conclusion in which the characteristics of some portion of the group are assumed to be true for everyone (or everything) in the group.

   Examples:

   "You're Jewish, so you must be well educated."

"He's a member of a good law firm, so he must be a good lawyer."

"They all are good singers, so they'll be a good quartet."

3. **Special Pleading** - A conclusion based on bringing out the factual information favorable to the author's arguments, but leaving out the information which is not favorable. Be careful not to overdo this fallacy. Historians always have to leave out some information, but this doesn't mean they've committed special pleading. What we want to know is whether the historian has left out evidence contrary (opposite) to his/her theory, or whether the historian has included it and overcome it with better evidence or reasoning.

Examples:

"Mom, I should be able to go to the dance. I passed my history test, and got an 'A' in math." (But, he failed the science test, which he didn't tell his mom).

"The U. S. has always won her wars. Look at the Spanish American War, World War I, and World War II." (But this leaves out the War of 1812 and Vietnam).

c. **Cause and Effect Fallacies:**

1. **Single Cause** - A conclusion that an event had one cause when in reality more than one cause was involved. Giving an event one cause oversimplifies history. Be careful not to overdo this fallacy. Sometimes a historian asserts that something was the cause of an event, but he/she really means that it was the main cause.

Example:

"The explosion of the battleship 'Maine' caused the Spanish-American War."

2. **Preceding Event as Cause (Post Hoc Ergo Propter Hoc)** -

A conclusion that if event B happened after event A, then A caused B.

Examples:

"I washed my car, so naturally it rained."

"General Grant was appointed commander of the Union troops. After this, the North started to win."

3. **Correlation As Cause** -

A conclusion that if A and B occurred at the same time, or regularly at the same time (a correlation), then one caused the other. Historians deal frequently with correlations when they cannot show the connection between a supposed cause and effect. Ideally, we would like to see the connection, but oftentimes correlations are very strong. For example, since doctors have not shown **how** cigarette smoking leads to lung cancer (they haven't shown the connection) they haven't proven that it causes the cancer. Yet the correlation between cigarette smoking and lung cancer is so strong that almost everyone believes that cigarettes do cause it.

Examples:

"Democrats were President during World War I, World War II, and Korea. The Democrats cause wars."

"Presidents elected in years ending in zero (i.e. 1860) died in office. So, the years they were elected caused their deaths."

d. **Proof Fallacies:**

1. **Irrelevant Proof** - A conclusion based on an argument which is not relevant to the topic.

Examples:

Student to teacher, "If you flunk me, I'll lose my scholarship."

Child to parent, "Everyone else does it."

Historian, "Governor Billing was not such a bad governor. He was good to his children, and he went to church every Sunday."

2. **Negative Proof** - A conclusion based on the absence (lack) of evidence to support some other theory (argument).

Example:

"There is no evidence that Senator Macklem was an honest woman, therefore she was a thief."

3. **Numbers** - A conclusion that this argument must be right since there is so much evidence to back it up. But don't go overboard on this fallacy, because generally an argument with more evidence is strengthened.

Example:

"We have so much evidence from these records that we must be right."

4. **Appeal to Authority** - A conclusion that this argument is right because it is based on the support of an expert. Again, you have to be careful, since using authorities to support a theory generally strengthens the theory. This is why doctors are called to testify in court cases involving medical injuries. However, sometimes authors depend too much on experts and not enough on evidence to prove their points. also, sometimes the experts are not expert on the particular topic about which the author is arguing.

Example:

Bruce Jenner urging us to eat a certain brand of cereal.

5. **Appeal to the Golden Mean** - A conclusion that this argument is right because it is moderate (between the extreme views), or it takes in all the other viewpoints. Remember that extreme views can be right. Many ideas that we now accept as reasonable were once considered extreme. For example, it was once considered an extreme view to be in favor of women voting.

Examples:

"Some people say that Adolph Hitler was the greatest leader ever and some people say he was one of the most evil men who ever lived. So, he must have been an OK person - with some good and some bad points."

"The ideal highway speed is 45 miles per hour because it is between the crazy speeder and the slow poke."

6. **False Scenario** - A conclusion based on an argument that if something had happened, then something else would have happened (or if something had not happened, then something else would not have happened, and so forth). Scenarios can be reasonable if there is a lot of evidence to support them, but scenarios are weak. Watch for the cue word "if," although not all statements with "if" are scenarios.

Example:

"If we had not built railroads in the late nineteenth century, the U.S. would not have had as much economic growth."

7. **Either-Or** - A conclusion that since A and B were the only possible explanations and since A was not possible, B is proven to be the explanation. This method of arguing (eliminating alternatives) is acceptable, as was shown above in the explanation of proof reasoning. The problem is when the two alternatives were not the only choices available. Couldn't it be both, neither, or something else?

Example:

Book title "The Colonists: Dreamers or Idiots?"

8. **Begging the Question (Circular Argument)** - A conclusion which is based on a premise, but the premise is also based on the conclusion.

Example:

"Author A is a better writer than author B because people with good literary taste prefer A. We know those people have good literary taste because they read author A."

9. **Prevalent Proof** - A conclusion that something is right because everyone knows it is right.

Example:

(From the Middle Ages) "Everyone knows the sun goes around the earth."

e. **Debating Fallacies:**

1. **Attacking the Arguer (Ad Hominem)** - A conclusion that the opposing viewpoint is wrong because of the person making the argument.

Example:

"No one should listen to what Mr. Warren says. He's a Communist."

2. **Straw Man** - A conclusion that the opposing viewpoint is wrong based on an attack of what the opponent did **not** say. It is the technique of adding to or changing what an opponent has said, and then attacking your version of what he/she said.

Example:

Jones: "I'm opposed to capital punishment."

Thibedeau: "People like you who oppose punishing criminals make me sick." (Jones didn't say he opposed punishing criminals.)

3. **Appeal to Irrelevant Outcome** - A conclusion that an opposing viewpoint is wrong because the person making the argument would really not want the outcome or consequences of his/her position.

Example:

Historian: "I wonder if those historians who feel America was wrong in the Mexican War would want to give back all the land the U.S. gained from the War." (This is irrelevant to whether the U.S. was right or wrong.)

IV. MODELS FOR ANALYZING ARGUMENTS

A. For written arguments use MARKER: (Remember that key words - such as value words - can help you identify several of the parts of an argument.)

M - Find the **main point.**

A - Locate any **assumptions** the author makes. Include in these values and value judgments.

R - Identify the types of **reasoning** used by the author in the different parts of the argument.

K - Apply the **key questions** to the types of reasoning you found. How well does the author answer these questions? These key questions may also help you to identify fallacies in the argument.

E - Look for the **evidence** the author uses to support his points. If there is no evidence, be sure to note that. If the author uses factual information (sourceless evidence) instead of evidence, write that down and add any comments. If the author has evidence, evaluate it according to PROP or the other factors for judging evidence. If the author includes a lot of evidence, evaluate only the two or three pieces of evidence that support the most important arguments. You must evaluate specific pieces of evidence if there is evidence presented in the argument.

R - Think of any **relevant information** that you know of on this issue. Do the points made in this argument square with what you already know on the topic? Do the points seem to make sense based on your own experiences?

B. For films use PIPE: (Remember that what we are evaluating here is the arguments made by the film. We are not judging it according to literary or technical standards).

P - Find the **point of view** of the film. Watch for parts of the film which seem to make value judgments. Does the point of view support or attack a point of view which you already know of on this topic?

I - Watch for any **inferences** made in the film. What parts of the film could the author (filmmaker) not have known from the evidence available on this topic, but rather had to guess at or infer. For example, suppose suppose two characters in the film have a private discussion in a bedroom. If neither of these figures ever actually wrote about what he/she thought or talked about, then you might conclude that the author of the film made up this conversation. The conversation may reveal the author's opinions, bias, or point of view.

P - Think about persuasive techniques used in the film.

How does the film use music, camera angles, character portrayal (i.e. good guys and bad guys), and so forth? Are these aspects of the film meant to persuade the viewer to a certain point of view? For example, if a film on industrialists played lively cheerful music every time an industrialist was shown, you might conclude that the filmmaker was favorable to the industrialists.

E - Identify any evidence used in the film to support its arguments. What evidence is presented and how good is it? When we say evidence we mean specific evidence used to support specific arguments. We do not mean the statement at the beginning of some films that it is "based on fact." It is very difficult to present evidence in a film. Nevertheless, just as you should not be persuaded by written arguments having no evidence to back them up, you should not be unduly influenced by films having no evidence to back them up.

WP-1 AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

A. Write the following argument in premise-premise-conclusion form:

"Since the yellow press influenced so many American people about the situation in Cuba in the 1890's, the yellow press was the main factor in pushing the U. S. into the Spanish-American War."

1. Premise:
2. Premise:
3. Conclusion:
4. What is the assumption?

_____5. What are the two types of reasoning used in this argument?
- A. Comparison (analogy)
- B. Sample (generalization)
- C. Cause and Effect
- D. Proof
- E. Debating

B. **(I) "The U. S. should not meddle in other countries' affairs. (II) The other countries can settle their own problems."**

_____6. The conclusion is:
- A. I
- B. II
- C. Other countries don't want our help.
- D. The U. S. is imperialistic.

_____7. What is a word which makes a value judgment?
- A. Countries
- B. Affairs
- C. Meddle
- D. Settle

Write whether each of the following situations tend to support, refute, or is irrelevant to the above argument that the U. S. should not interfere in other countries' affairs. Write "S" (supports), "R" (refutes) or "I" (irrelevant). The first one is done for you:

R 8. Nazi Germany has attacked England without warning. England is a close friend to the U. S. and helps defend freedom around the world. England will be crushed without U. S. help. (This case tends to show that the U. S. should give help, or interfere in the situation.)

____9. Cubans are being mistreated by their colonial masters, the Spanish. The Cubans can defend themselves.

____10. Russia and Japan are fighting a war. Japan is winning. Neither country wants any outside assistance.

____11. Russian troops are attacking Poland. Poland has no way of stopping them and soon will be taken over.

____12. Communist rebels are trying to overthrow the government of El Salvador. The government of El Salvador is friendly with the U. S.

C. **(I) "China was one of the weakest countries in the world in the nineteenth century. (II) Just look at her humiliating defeats in the Opium War and the Sino-Japanese War."**

____13. What is the conclusion?
- A. I
- B. II
- C. Weak countries always suffer military defeat.
- D. The Opium and Sino-Japanese Wars were turning points in Chinese history.

14. What is an unstated assumption in this argument?
- A. Weak countries always suffer military defeat.
- B. China was weak in the nineteenth century.
- C. Countries which suffer military defeats are weak.
- D. The Opium and Sino-Japanese Wars were humiliating defeats for China.

____15. What is an important word in the argument which needs to be defined more carefully?

WP-2 AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

In April, 1898 the United States declared war on Spain. The situation in Cuba in the 1890's was a factor in the American decision to go to war, although historians disagree as to how important this factor was. The Cubans revolted against their colonial masters, the Spanish. The Spanish used some harsh methods in their attempt to put down the rebellion.

Several theories have been advanced by historians as to what the main cause was of the U. S. declaration of war. One theory is that the yellow press was the primary reason. Below are three historical arguments, all of which say that the yellow press was the main cause. Write down which of the three arguments is the strongest and explain why. Consider especially types of reasoning and key questions:

HISTORIAN A

(I) The main cause of the Spanish-American War was the yellow press. (II) The penny newspapers competed for readership in cities so they could sell more advertising. (III) This was especially true in New York City where the papers owned by William Randolph Hearst and Joseph Pulitzer were in fierce competition. (IV) In order to compete, each paper printed the gruesome details of the revolution in Cuba. (V) As a result, the American public became sympathetic with the rebels, and the U. S. declared war to help the Cubans against the Spanish.

HISTORIAN B

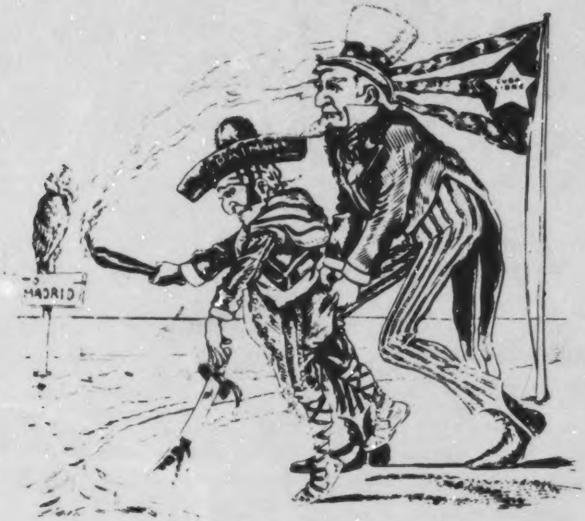
(I) The main cause of the Spanish-American War was the yellow press. (II) These newspapers, which competed for readers, often exaggerated and distorted the situation in Cuba. (III) As William Randolph Hearst said to an artist in 1898, "You furnish the pictures, I'll furnish the war." (IV) Millions of Americans were influenced by the newspapers. (V) With elections coming up in the fall of 1898, the politicians in Congress and President McKinley were quite aware of the sentiment to protect the Cubans through war with Spain.

HISTORIAN C

(I) The main cause of the Spanish-American War was the yellow press. (II) These newspapers exaggerated the situation in Cuba. (III) For example, the *New York World* declared, "The

horrors of the barbarous struggle (by the Spanish) for the extermination (wiping out) of the native population (the Cubans) are witnessed in all parts of the country." (IV) The papers also printed graphic drawings of the Cuban revolution. (V) With such distortions in the papers, the country could not help but be pushed into war.

Uncle Sam "Now Git-Durn Ye!"



Charles L. Bartholomew (Bart). *Minneapolis Journal,* 1898.

WP-3 AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

HISTORIAN A

(I) The Spanish-American War was a key event in American imperialism. (II) As such, it is important to understand how the United States became involved in the War. (III) It is clear from the records left to us that President McKinley was pushed into the War by jingoists (militaristic patriots who frequently want war) and the press. (IV) The President didn't really want war, but he was too weak willed to stand up against the popular demand for military action.

(V) When McKinley entered the presidency in March 1897 he was surrounded by a group of expansionists, including Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, Assistant Secretary of the Navy Theodore Roosevelt, and Captain Alfred T. Mahan. (VI) These men wanted a large navy, a string of naval bases, and territorial and trade expansion[1], so when the situation in Cuba worsened, President McKinley was already advised to pursue expansionist policies.

(VII) Meanwhile, the Spanish were having great difficulty in ruling their colony of Cuba in the 1890's. (VIII) The United States passed the Wilson-Gorman Tariff in 1894 which put a 40 percent duty (tax) on sugar from Cuba. (IX) The sugar plantations were ruined and since Cuba depended almost completely on sugar, the whole economy fell apart. (X) The Cuban people suffered greatly, and a rebellion against the Spanish soon resulted.[2] (XI) The Spanish, under General Weyler, were forced to use harsh measures to suppress the revolt, such as herding Cuban people into reconcentrados, or concentration camps.

(XII) As bad as the Spanish actions were, they were not sufficient to cause the United States to declare war—countries frequently have to use violence and cruelty to crush revolutions, but other governments do not declare war on them for it. (XIII) Besides, many Americans realized that the rebels were just as harsh as the Spanish.

(XIV) What escalated the Cuban situation into a cause for declaring war was the yellow press. (XV) The newspapers in New York City competed for readers—the more readers a paper had, the more it could charge for advertising. (XVI) Readers could be gained through sensational stories, and many such stories could be written about the rebellion in Cuba. (XVII)

Day after day, Americans read about General Wyler's atrocities (tortures, killing of civilians, war crimes) toward Cuban men, women and children.[3] (XVIII) Graphic drawings were included, also. (XIX) Much of what was written was exaggerated or distorted - the yellow press was more interested in selling papers than in printing the truth. (XX) As William Randolph Hearst told an artist in 1898, "You furnish the pictures, I'll furnish the war."[4]

(XXI) American public opinion was inflamed for war in February, 1898 by two events. (XXII) First, a letter by the Spanish minister, de Lôme, was published in a New York newspaper. (XXIII) In it, de Lôme referred to McKinley as a weak man who was a "bidder for the admiration of the crowd."[5] (XXIV) Second, the American battleship "Maine" was blown up in Havanna (Cuba) harbor, killing 260 Americans. (XXV) Americans immediately believed that the Spanish torpedoed the ship. (XXVI) The press had a field day with these two events, whipping up public outrage to new heights.[6]

(XXVII) Faced with this public pressure, McKinley sent a series of harsh demands to Spain on March 27, 1898. (XXVIII) With a few minor points of difference the Spanish agreed to the demands.[7] (XXIX) However, by this time McKinley was being pressed by the jingoists for war. (XXX) Moreover, McKinley did not want Congress to take the initiative to declare war, since it would look like he, the President, was a weak leader. (XXXI) If McKinley looked weak, his Republican Party would be hurt in the upcoming Congressional elections in the fall.[8]

(XXXII) So McKinley ignored the Spanish concessions and went in front of Congress on April 11, 1898 to lead the country into war. (XXXIII) In reality, McKinley did not lead the country at all; he allowed himself to be pushed into an imperialistic war by public opinion and by an elite group of militaristic patriots. (XXXIV) As Senator Spooner said, the President could have avoided war, but the press and jingoists were too strong and the fall elections were too near.

WP-3 AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

HISTORIAN A

Footnotes (Quotes indicate a direct quote from the source)

[1] Henry Cabot Lodge, "Our Blundering Foreign Policy," *The Forum*, Vol. XIX (March 1895), pp. 14-17:

> "In the interests of our commerce and of our fullest development we should build the Nicaragua Canal...control the Hawaiian Islands and maintain our influence in Samoa....When the Nicaragua Canal is built, the island of Cuba...will become to us a necessity."

> "The United States Looking Outward," *The Atlantic Monthly*, Vol. LXVI (1890), pp.821-823: Alfred T. Mahoney.
> "Whether they will or not, Americans must now begin to look outward. The growing production of the country demands it. An increasing volume of public sentiment (feelings) demands it."

[2] Thomas A. Bailey, *A Diplomatic History of the American People*, eighth edition (New York, 1969), p. 451:

> "The American tariff of 1894, by placing relatively high duties on sugar, visited the island with economic prostration (reduced to helplessness). Early in 1895, the unhappy Cubans unfurled the flag of rebellion."

[3] *New York Journal*, February 23, 1896, 27: 1, 2, 3

> "It is not only Weyler the soldier ——— but Weyler the brute, the devastator of haciendas (homes), the destroyer of families, and the outrager of women ——— pitiless, cold, an exterminator of men ———

New York World, May 17, 1896, 1:8, 2:1:

> "Blood on the roadsides, blood in the fields, blood on the doorsteps, blood, blood, blood! The old, the young, the weak, the crippled—all are butchered without mercy."

[4] There is a story that Hearst said this to the artist Frederick Remington. J. R. Winkler, *W. R. Hearst* (New York, 1928), p. 144.

[5] J. B. Moore, *A Digest of International Law* (Washington, 1906), VI, 176.

[6] For example, Hearst's newspaper printed the headlines:

"THE WARSHIP MAINE WAS SPLIT IN TWO BY AN ENEMY'S SECRET INFERNAL MACHINE"
"THE WHOLE COUNTRY THRILLS WITH WAR FEVER"

[7] McKinley's demands on March 27, 1898 were: (Summarized by the author of this booklet.)

First: Armistice (truce) until October 1.
Second: Immediate ending of reconcentrado (concentration camp) policy.
Third: The President of the United States to be the final arbiter (judge) between Spain and the Cuban rebels, if terms of peace are not settled between Spain and the Cubans by October 1.

Within the next two weeks Spain announced an armistice and an end of the reconcentrado policy. This was all Spain could be expected to do, under the circumstances.

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WP-3 AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

HISTORIAN B

(I) The causes of the Spanish-American War have been studied by historians for years. (II) While a number of interpretations have been advanced, the common view is that President McKinley was a weak leader who was pushed into war by a small number of jingoists and by the yellow press. (III) Close examination of the causes of the war shows that the common view is mistaken, however. (IV) President McKinley was actually a strong leader who knew what he wanted - he didn't need public opinion to push him into war.

(V) The theory that a group of influential jingoists was a key factor in the war is wrong. (VI) Assistant Secretary of the Navy, Theodore Roosevelt, Senator Henry Cabot Lodge and other jingoists actually had little influence with McKinley; much less than Assistant Secretary of State William R. Day, Senator William B. Allison and several other men.[1] (VII) How, then, could the jingoists have talked McKinley into war?

(VIII) Likewise, the theory of yellow journalism does not explain the war. (IX) The president can ignore public opinion if he chooses. (X) Also, it must be remembered that newspapers could not create public opinion on the issue, but only shape an already existing opinion for war. (XI) Historians have mistakenly taken as true William Randolph Hearst's statement that he'd furnish the war. (XII) Hearst exaggerated his own role in what he considered to be a "splendid little war."

(XIII) President McKinley's clearcut goals show that he, not the jingoes or yellow press, was in control of United States policies. (XIV) The President was worried about German expansion but could do little about it while American interests and energies were focused on Cuba.[2] (XV) Thus, McKinley wanted the difficulties between Spain and her colony resolved. (XVI) As long as the hostilities in Cuba continued the United States looked weak.

(XVII) McKinley tried to resolve the conflict in Cuba without war by submitting a proposal to Spain calling for Cuban autonomy (self government). (XVIII) The de Lôme letter undermined his efforts for a peaceful solution, but not because de Lôme said the President was weak. (XIX)Rather, the letter showed that Spanish promises to reform in Cuba were not being carried out – Spain was telling the U. S. one thing but doing something else.[3]

WP-3 AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

HISTORIAN B

(XX) When the battleship "Maine" was blown up, the American public did clamor for war. (XXI) However, President McKinley instead set up a naval board of inquiry to study the incident - he was not being herded into war. (XXII) If the destuction of the "Maine" was the reason for war, why did it take two months before the U. S. did anything about it?

(XXIII) In late March, McKinley sent a series of stiff demands to Spain. (XXIV) Spain's response to the demands has been misinterpreted by historians. (XXV) While Spain seemed to concede to most of the demands, in reality she did not. (XXVI) Most importantly, Spain would not agree to independence for Cuba.[4] (XXVII) This was the central point in McKinley's program.

(XXVIII) In light of evidence (from the de Lôme letter) showing that the Spanish had negotiated previously in bad faith, and in light of the lack of agreement on McKinley's main demand, war could scarcely be avoided. (XXIX) What led to the Spanish-American War was not the jingoists and yellow press, but rather a conscious policy by President McKinley[5] of independence for Cuba, to which the Spanish could not and would not agree.

HISTORIAN B

Footnotes (Quotes indicate direct quote from that source)

[1] Horace Samuel Merrill and Marion Galbraith Merrill, *The Republican Command, 1897-1913*, The University Press of Kentucky, 1971,p. 4.

> "At the beginning, 1897, President William McKinley and a coterie (small group) of senators, called 'The Four,' constituted the top command (of the Republican Party). The four were Nelson W. Aldrich of Rhode Island, Orville H. Platt of Connecticut, William B. Allison of Iowa, and John C. Spooner of Wisconsin. (Later Theodore Roosevelt, Joseph G. Cannon, and William Howard Taft joined the group.)
>
> "No other Republicans wielded the great power over policy, legislation, nominations, and appointments that these eight (including McKinley) possessed."

[2] Germany sent warships into Haiti in the winter of 1897, attacked the Monroe Doctrine, and announced plans to build new warships for the Caribbean and South Atlantic. Germany also took over part of China in November 1897, but the United States could do nothing about it as long as Cuba occupied so much of its attention.

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WP-3 AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

HISTORIAN B

[3]There was evidence in the letter showing that neither Spain's announced reforms in Cuba nor Spain's negotiations for a trade pact with the United States were really being carried out sincerely.

> "Without a military end of the matter nothing will be accomplished in Cuba." (This indicates that he felt Spain should defeat the Cuban rebels rather than reform the island.)
>
> "It would be very advantageous to take up *even if only for effect*, the question of commercial relations (with the United States)." (Emphasis added) (This shows that he wanted Spain to discuss commercial relations merely to improve Spain's image in the United States.)

Letter from Enrique Depuy de Lôme to Don José Canaljas (a friend of de Lôme), December 1897, from *Foreign Relations of the United States*, 1898, p. 1007.

[4]McKinley's demands were that Spain:

First: Declare an immediate armistice (truce) lasting until October 1.

Second: Permanently abolish the reconcentrado (concentration camp) policy.

Third: Permit the President to mediate (help the Spanish and Cubans come to agreement on) the conflict if a settlement between Spain and the rebels was not reached during the armistice.

The third demand involved Cuban independence, since McKinley, as mediator, could require it. Both the Spanish and the Americans realized that the third demand was the most important.

Spain agreed to the first two demands,but McKinley wondered about Spain's sincerity to actually carry them out. Then Assistant Secretary of State Day asked the Spanish whether they were ready to grant Cuban independence. The answer was no. So actually, the Spanish reply to the United States' demands was completely unsatisfactory.

[5]One event which shows that the President, not the jingoists or yellow press, was in control of events was when Senator Redfield Proctor gave a speech on Cuba. The Republican from Vermont, who had just returned from a tour of Cuba, enflamed the American public with his speech which described the terrible cruelties by the Spanish on the island and which called for Cuban independence.

Stories at the time make it seem likely that McKinley had sent Senator Proctor to Cuba and cleared his speech before its delivery. The President was as much in control of public opinion as was the yellow press.

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WP-4 AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

HISTORIAN A

(I) In the time period from 1890 to 1929, the United States was an imperialist country. (II) The United States took over or economically dominated the Philippines, Cuba, Panama, Guam, Hawaii, Midway, Colombia, China and others. (III) United States foreign investments increased tremendously from $15 million in 1865 to $685 million in 1897 to $20 billion in 1929! (IV) The new American imperialism was more subtle than that of previous imperialist powers.(V)Although the U.S. generally did not run the country politically (except in the Philippines) its economic investments could control what the country did.

(VI) Declining profits for businesses in America is the reason why the United States became imperialistic at this time. (VII) As a capitalist country the United States was moving in the 1890's toward more and more widespread monopolies within the country. (VIII) More goods were being produced than Americans could consume. (IX) This led to declining prices (prices had to be cut in order to sell all the excess goods) and thus to declining profits.[1] (X) Influential businessmen within the United States, such as Charles Conant, recognized this trend. (XI) Conant stated in 1898, "New markets and new opportunities for investment must be found if surplus capital is to be profitably employed."[2] (XII) It wasn't just that the United States companies had to sell their excess goods, but also that they had to invest their excess capital (money) outside the U. S., where it would lead to bigger profits and whole new markets — only in this way could economic stagnation and revolution by the poor in America be prevented.[3]

(XIII) There is no question, then, that the U. S. was pushed to its imperialist adventures by monopolist businessmen trying to save their profits from the decline of capitalism within the U.S. (XIV) The American Sugar Refining Company, for example, had received excessive profits in the U. S. due to its monopoly position. (XV) As its profits fell due to competition from within the U. S., the company sought new markets in foreign countries. (XVI) It benefitted greatly from its investments in Cuba after the Spanish-American War, as well as from investments in other Central American states.

WP-4 AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

HISTORIAN A

(XVII) It was businessmen who pushed the U. S. to take the Philippines, also. (XVIII) Business groups argued to President McKinley that the Philippines should be held by the U. S. (even though the Filipinos wanted independence) "for the protection and furtherance of the commercial interests of our citizens in the Far East."[4] (XIX) Other business groups argued that with millions of Chinese within easy distance of the Philippines we could increase our trade greatly by keeping it.[5]

(XX) The net result upon the countries in which the U. S. invested was devastating. (XXI) Precious resources, which the countries needed to help pull themselves out of poverty, were drained off to the U. S., while the companies, not the countries, made all the profits. (XXII) Moreover, the poor workers were wage slaves to the giant companies, which exploited the workers with low wages while raking in enormous profits.

(XXIII) Thus it was that from 1890 to 1929 the U. S.began its imperialist investments to save the monopolistic businessmen from the declining profits and collapse of capitalism which is inevitable in the capitalist system. (XXIV) In the process, underdeveloped (i.e., poor) countries were exploited and their growth retarded for decades.

Footnotes (Quotes indicate a direct quote from the source)

[1] V. I. Lenin, *Imperialism: The Highest Stage of Capitalism*. Lenin was the leader of the Bolshevik (Communist) Revolution of 1917 in Russia. In this piece, Lenin argues that competitive capitalism inevitably leads to monopoly capitalism which leads to overproduction and declining profits,which inevitably leads to imperialism to find new areas for profitable investment,which inevitably leads to war, since capitalist countries eventually have to fight to take these needed markets from each other.

[2] Charles Conant, "The Economic Basis of Imperialism," *North American Review*, September, 1898. He further stated, "The U. S. cannot afford to adhere to a policy of isolation while other nations are reaching out for the command of these new markets."

[3] Claude Julien, *America's Empire*, (New York: Vintage Books, 1971), p.57. "The economic crisis of 1893-1898 had incited many disorders, with riots, hunger marches, explosions of violence which, for some people, foreshadowed a revolution."

Charles and Mary Beard, *A Basic History of the United States* (New York: Doubleday, Doran and Co., 1945), p. 339. "A diversion of the people's thought from domestic discontent over plutocracy and poverty, such as embroiled the land in the campaign of 1896, to world politics and wars would damp if not extinguish radicalism at home."

[4] *Journal of the American Asiatic Association*, I (1898), 1, quoted in Thomas J. McCormick, "Insular Imperialism and the Open Door: The Spanish-American War, *Pacific Historical Review* 32: 155-69, May, 1963.

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HISTORIAN A

'Speech by Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, 1900, quoted in Leon Wolff, *Little Brown Brother* (New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1960), p. 304. "I believe to abandon the islands. . . would be a wrong to humanity....Manila, with its magnificent bay, is the prize and the pearl of the East . . . it will keep open to us the markets of China.... "

Albert J. Beveridge, speech in the Senate, January 8, 1900 summarized by Wolff, "Trade with China...was paramount to America's future, while the Philippines themselves abounded in rice, coffee, sugar, hemp, tobacco, copper and gold."

Mark Hanna campaign speech for William McKinley (Republican) in 1900 quoted in Wolff, "If it is commercialism to want....a foothold (the Philippines)in the markets of that great Eastern country (China), for God's sake let us have commercialism."

Insurance Advocate (business journal) - Keeping the Philippines would encourage "the teeming millions of the Middle Kingdom (China) to buy from us."

WP-4 AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

HISTORIAN B

(I) Some Marxist economists (such as V. I. Lenin) have argued that U. S. imperialism from 1890 to 1929 was due to an effort by businessmen to invest overseas because of declining profits on capital in the U. S. (II) They say that foreign investment was critical in propping up the profit rate for U. S. companies. (III) This argument is erroneous, however, for several reasons.

(IV) First, compared to total U. S. investments within the country, foreign investments were small. (V) From 1869 to 1897 foreign investment was 1 percent of total investment, and from 1900 to 1929 it was only 6 percent of total investment. (VI) Another way to put this is that from 1900 to 1929 the entire increase of all U. S. foreign investments was smaller than the increase in investment in California alone.

(VII) Second, very few U. S. companies were involved significantly in this foreign investment. (VIII) Most companies did not invest abroad.[1] (IX)For all U. S. investors except three categories (agriculture, manufacturing, metals), the amount put into foreign investment was less than .1 percent of total investment. (X) Even for these three categories, the foreign investment was less than 2 percent of the total investment.

(XI) Third, if it is true that foreign investment was critical in propping up sagging U. S. profit rates in the U. S., then we should see a significant rise in profits in the U. S. from 1890 to 1929. (XII) But we don't see this; the profit rate went from about 4.8 percent in 1890 to about 4.9 percent in 1929.

(XIII) Actually, only in five industries--bananas, sugar, copper, oil, and precious metals (gold, silver, etc.)--was there significant foreign investment. (XIV) But investments in precious metals was around long before capitalism came on the scene, so this investment in it can't be said to be due to capitalist imperialism. (XV) There is no domestic supply of bananas, so foreign investment there was understandable, and oil investment, although significant, was still only 7 percent of total investment in oil in 1929. (XVI) This leaves only sugar and copper where the investment was high and might be due to declining profits within the U. S.

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HISTORIAN B

(XVII) The picture of U. S. imperialism which emerges from this investigation is not surplus capital desperately searching for needed investment, but rather a few businessmen here and there in a few industries seizing a chance to make more profits.

(XVIII) The cases of Cuba and Panama illustrate the weaknesses of the Marxist argument. (XIX) After the Spanish-American War and the Reciprocity Treaty of 1902, in which the U. S. lowered its tariff on Cuban sugar, the American Sugar Refining Company seemed to have benefited. (XX) The amount of sugar refined by the company did not increase significantly, because demand for sugar in the U. S. did not change significantly. (XXI) Although imports from Cuba from 1900 to 1903 rose by 1.7 billion pounds, imports from the Dutch East Indies and Europe fell by .9 billion pounds which offset it. (XXII) It was the landholders in Cuba who really benefited from this increase in sugar exports from Cuba. (XXIII) But again, the American Sugar Refining Company didn't benefit because it didn't own much land in Cuba. (XXIV) All Americans combined only owned 16 percent of the sugar crop in 1902. (XXV) Thus the monopolistic American Sugar Refining Company did not benefit signficiantly from the takeover of Cuba.

(XXVI) In Panama the U. S. received $110 million in revenues from the Canal from 1909 to 1929, but paid $816 million, for a loss of $706 million. (XXVII) One might argue that rich American stockholders in the Panama Canal Company reaped in the profits from this loss to the taxpayers. (XXVIII) However, most of the stockholders were French, not American. (XXIX) It might seem like American shippers made money by cutting shipping costs, but they received no advantage over competitors since shippers from any nation could use the canal and at the same cost as that to American shippers. (XXX) The reasonable viewpoint is that the U. S. built the canal, not for profits for businessmen, but for military reasons.

(XXXI) Marxists also argue that American investments exploit the poor workers in the countries being invested in by Americans. (XXXII) The evidence, however, shows that in this time period American companies paid wages equal to, or more

often, higher than, the prevailing wage.[2] (XXXIII) The workers were better off as a result of U. S. investments.

(XXXIV) Thus, American Imperialism was not a result of pressure by American businessmen. (XXXV) The evidence does not support the theory that there was a push by businessmen to increase foreign investment, to exploit the impoverished foreign workers, and to save themselves from the decline of monopoly capitalism.

Footnotes (Quotes indicate a direct quote from the source)

[1] Cleona Lewis, *America's Stake in International Investment (1938).*

[2] In Cuba, immigration of laborers was restricted, while exports of sugar tripled. Thus, the demand for workers and their wages must have gone up. The average wage in 1900-1901 for sugar workers was $.76/day but in January, 1902, it was $.85½/day.

In Columbia, the United Fruit Company paid wages above the going wage. It paid wages in scrip, redeemable at the company store. But prices at the store were lower than in local stores, so workers' real wages were up even more. Frederick Rippy, *The Capitalists and Columbia*, pp. 190-191.

"Wages paid by United Fruit were high in comparison to money wages paid to agricultural workers elsewhere in Central America." Charles Kepner, Jr., *Social Aspects of the Banana Industry* (1936), p. 129.

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WP-5 AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

A. Document evaluation:

_____ 1. Which document would be most reliable in assessing why the U. S. entered into World War I?

A. Woodrow Wilson's message to Congress declaring war.
B. The memoirs of Colonel House in 1930 (an adviser to Wilson) explaining Wilson's motives.
C. A memo from the State Department to Wilson listing the pros and cons of declaring war.
D. A memo from Wilson to Colonel House explaining why he was going to declare war.

_____ 2. Which document would be most reliable in assessing why Germany declared war on Russia in July, 1914?

A. The public war declaration by Kaiser Wilhelm (Germany's leader).
B. The secretary's notes of a meeting of Wilhelm and his advisers to decide whether to declare war.
C. A German newspaper editorial from July, 1914 on why Germany declared war.
D. A Speech by Czar Nicholas of Russia on why Germany declared war on Russia.

B. Debate:

I. Lynn: The U. S. entered World War I because of the German submarines killing Americans. Look at the *Lusitania*, the *Sussex* and many other ships where Americans were killed.

II. Richard: The U. S. entered World War I for economic reasons. We made loans to the Allies to make money.

III. Lynn: Where'd you get that idea, from Chairman Mao (a Communist)?

IV. Richard: No, If you had any sense you'd see what I'm saying. Once the U. S. made the loans to the Allies the Germans were forced to try the submarines out of desperation. The subs didn't push us into the War--our loans pushed the Germans to try sub attacks.

____ 3. What three kinds of reasoning are used in I?

A. Comparison
B. Sample
C. Cause and Effect
D. Proof
E. Debating

____ 4. What kind of reasoning is IV primarily?

A. Comparison
B. Sample
C. Cause and Effect
D. Proof

____ 5. What is the fallacy in I (and in II)? (See pp. 16-21 in your *Guide*)

A. Appeal to Authority
B. Correlation as Cause
C. Appeal to Irrelevant Outcome
D. Single Cause
E. Numbers

____ 6. What is the fallacy in III?

A. Special Pleading
B. Attacking the Arguer
C. False Scenario
D. Irrelevant Proof
E. False Analogy

____ 7. Which is the better explanation of why the U. S. entered World War I?

A. Lynn —German subs pushed us into the War.
B. Richard—U. S. loans pushed the Germans to try submarine warfare which then pushed us into the War.
C. The two explanations are equally good.

WP-6 AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

HISTORIAN A (1972)

On May 7, 1915 a German U-boat (submarine) sank the British passenger liner, the *Lusitania*, with the loss of some 1200 people. Most people have blamed the tragedy completely on the Germans. This view is basically wrong, however. The British were much more at fault than people ever believed.

First, Germany published warnings in American newspapers that British passenger ships which sailed into the submarine area around Great Britain would be sunk. Some nervous passengers on the *Lusitania* asked the captain about the warnings and the captain reassured them that the *Lusitania* would be protected by British warships. The problem was that there was no protection by the British navy. The cruiser *Juno* was supposed to meet the *Lusitania* off the coast of Ireland and escort her to port. But the *Juno* was recalled to port and never met the passenger liner.[1] The British Admiralty knew that there were submarines in the area and didn't want a warship sunk. So the *Lusitania* was to sail unwarned into an area where submarines were known to be active without benefit of an escort.[2]

Second, the British navy forgot to tell the passengers that the ship was loaded with munitions, and was outfitted to have guns mounted on her.[3] The British decided to use passenger ships to protect shipments of badly-needed war materials, and to protect them further, they mounted guns on the ships (called mystery ships). The Germans were caught in a dilemma. If the ships were left alone, the English would get more materials with which to fight Germany. If the submarines surfaced to warn the ships, the "passenger" ships could sink the submarines with one hit (the submarines could not tell through a periscope if the ships were armed or not). However, if the submarines sank the passenger ships without warning, the British would cry "barbarity" and draw the United States into the war on their side against Germany.

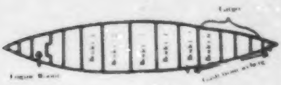
Thus, the commander of the U-20 (the submarine which sank the *Lusitania*) had little choice but to attack the huge liner without warning. One torpedo (not two, as has been alleged for many years) hit the forward part of the ship.[4] This was followed by a second explosion which was either the tons of ammunition blowing up or it was the explosion of gun cotton. The gun

HISTORIAN A

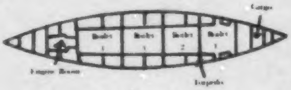
cotton on the ship was to be used for naval mines. It has the unusual characteristic of exploding when it comes into contact with ocean water![5] It was this second explosion which ripped out a large portion of the bottom of the ship and caused it to sink in only 18 minutes.

Third, the *Lusitania's* poor design was a major factor in the great loss of life. Unlike the *Titanic* which had transverse watertight compartments, the *Lusitania* had longitudinal compartments.

Titanic (Transverse compartments)

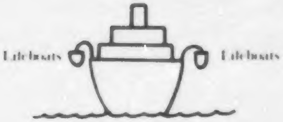

Cargo
Boiler
Engine Room

Lusitania (Longitudinal compartments)

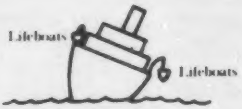

Cargo
Boiler
Boiler
Boiler
Boiler
Engine Room
Torpedo

When the *Titanic* hit the iceberg, it took two hours to sink and did not list at all to one side because its compartments flooded all the way across the ship. Thus, all its lifeboats could be lowered. When the *Lusitania* was hit by the torpedo, the compartments on the opposite side of the ship did not flood right away. Thus, the ship went into a fifteen degree list within seconds (the list got much worse later).

Titanic (Rear view)


Lifeboats
Lifeboats

Lusitania (Rear view)


Lifeboats
Lifeboats

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This list prevented the lowering of most of the lifeboats. As shown in the drawing above, the five-ton lifeboats on the high side of the *Lusitania* either swung in over the deck of the ship, slid down it and crushed passengers in their paths,[6] or slid down the side of the ship and were ripped open by the one-inch rivets sticking out of the side. The boats on the low side were difficult and dangerous to climb into and difficult to lower.

Fourth, the British Admiralty recalled a ship (the *Juno* again) that could have rescued many of the passengers. The *Juno* was recalled within sight of the passengers because the British were afraid it,too,would be sunk by the submarine. It was two more hours before other, smaller boats arrived. Darkness soon followed and by the next morning most of the passengers had drowned.

The British Admiralty then conducted an inquiry into the sinking in which it blamed the whole matter on the Germans and the captain of the *Lusitania* and absolved itself of any responsibility. The Germans were guilty of barbarity, they concluded, and the captain of the liner did not heed Admiralty warnings of submarine activity and try to avoid the U-boat. There was no mention of munitions on the ship, the ship's design, or any other problems. The British government had what it wanted. The Germans looked like uncivilized brutes and the United States was very angry–well on its way to siding with Britain in the War.

Footnotes

(Quotes indicate a direct quote from the source)

[1] Shortly after noon on May 5, the Admiralty signaled the *Juno* to abandon her escort mission and return to Queenstown. The *Lusitania* was not informed that she was now alone.

[2] Commander Kenworthy, who had previously submitted a paper at Sir Winston Churchill's request (Churchill was First Lord of the Admiralty) on the political results of an ocean liner being sunk with American passengers on board, was called to a meeting at the Admiralty map room on May 5, 1915. What was said will be never be known but Kenworthy left the room disgusted at the cynical attitude of his superiors. He wrote later, "The *Lusitania* was sent at considerably reduced speed into an area where a U-boat was known to be waiting and with her escort withdrawn." He concluded that the Admiralty was letting the *Lusitania* be sunk to pull the United States into the War.

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[3]The previous captain of the *Lusitania*, Captain Dow, protested the mixing of passengers and munitions. He was replaced by Captain Turner.

The records of the Remington Small Arms Company show that 2,000 cases of small arms ammunition were received by the *Lusitania*.

The *Lusitania* and her sister ship, the *Mauritania*, were built by the Cunard Company with the help of the British Admiralty. In time of war, the ships could be outfitted by the Admiralty as war ships. Extra plating and gun mounts were added to the *Lusitania*, but the guns were probably never put on.

[4]Diary of Captain Schwieger, Commander of the U-20, the submarine which torpedoed the *Lusitania*, May 7, 1915, 3:10 p.m.:

> "Torpedo hits starboard side right behind the bridge. An unusually heavy detonation takes place with a very strong explosion cloud. The explosion of the torpedo must have been followed by a second one (boiler or coal or powder)."

[5]Dr. Ritter von Rettegh made a sworn statement of a conversation he had in Washington with Captain Guy Gaunt of the British navy:

> "After some little conversation, he (Gaunt) asked me what effect, if any, sea water coming in contact with gun cotton would have. I inquired of him why he wanted to know this. He said, 'We are required to send by one of our fastest steamers (the *Lusitania* had set the record for the fastest crossing of the Atlantic)in the next day or so about six hundred tons of gun cotton, which we have purchased from the DuPont Powder Company.' I told him that if sea water comes into contact with the gun cotton immediately a chemical change takes place ---raising the temperature and causing a sudden explosion. He asked me what to do to prevent this, and I said to keep it in a dry place."

It was not the boilers which exploded. The testimony of the two survivors of number 1 boiler shows it did not explode. They stated that they tried to escape for several minutes (the second explosion occurred right after the torpedo struck the ship) but did not mention the boiler blowing up. The survivor of number 2 boiler room also testified that the boiler did not explode. Number 3 and number 4 boiler rooms rose out of the water and were not close to the point where the torpedo struck the ship, so those boilers could not have exploded.

Divers who have been down to the wreck unanimously testify that the bow of the ship (where the ammunition was stored) was blasted by a massive internal (from the inside out) explosion.

[6] Mr. Isaac Lehmann of New York City made a sworn statement that he saw at least thirty people crushed to death by one of the lifeboats sliding across the deck.

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HISTORIAN B (1975)

People have traditionally felt that the German torpedo attack on the *Lusitania* on May 7, 1915 was morally wrong and deserved the condemnation of the world. But in 1975 Historian A burst on the scene with two articles and a book with the sensational theory that Britain was mainly responsible for the disaster. It is unfortunate that so many people have believed the arguments of Historian A, since he is not a trained historian at all, but rather a newspaper correspondent. His writing mingles history and historical fiction in a thoroughly misleading way.

It is true that the *Lusitania* carried munitions on her voyage in May, that the British did arm some of their merchant ships with weapons to sink unsuspecting submarines, and that the Germans warned passengers in America that liners entering the war zone could be sunk. Nevertheless, the German U-boat commander was not morally justified in sinking the *Lusitania*. Over one thousand innocent civilians were killed. As President Wilson argued, to say the U-boat commander was not wrong is like saying that if a bloodthirsty killer warns his victims first, then the killer is not wrong.

The Germans cried that it was wrong for the United States to trade munitions with her enemy, but not with her. However, the United States had no way to trade with Germany (because of the British blockade) so the situation couldn't be avoided. It has been a common practice for neutrals to sell arms to one side in a war, while not being able to sell to the other side. Germany herself had sold arms to the British during the Boer War while not selling to the Boers due to the British naval blockade.[1]

Historian A argues that the *Lusitania* was supposed to be met by the warship *Juno* and escorted from there to port. There is no evidence to show that the *Juno* was ever ordered to meet the *Lusitania* in the first place, however. It would have been illogical to order the slower cruiser to escort the swift liner anyway, since the *Juno* would have only slowed the *Lusitania* down. The cruiser would have been ineffective against the submarine, serving instead only as a second target.

Historian A charges that the *Lusitania* was not even warned of submarines in the area,but, in fact, she was warned several times.[2]

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HISTORIAN B

Historian A tries to make it look like First Lord of the Admiralty Winston Churchill planned to let the *Lusitania* be sunk by the Germans in order to draw the United States into the War on England's side. But Historian A's conspiracy theory is an illusion as the two previous arguments show. There was never to be an escort and the ship was warned. Based on Winston Churchill's actions during the rest of his life it is impossible to believe he would deliberately leave civilians to die.

Another ridiculous argument which Historian A makes is that the ammunition on board exploded causing the ship to sink so fast. The problem with this argument is that the torpedo hit the ship between the first and second boiler some 150 feet from where the ammunition was stored.[3] Surely, the torpedo could not cause the munitions to explode at that distance, especially when repeated testing shows that even in a fire small arms ammunition doesn't explode, it just shoots off like fireworks.[4] Also, no passenger testified of smelling the acrid odor of exploding munitions.

Historian A argues that the ship was loaded with gun cotton which explodes when it contacts ocean water. Why would the British, however, put gun cotton, which they desperately needed, on a ship which they were hoping to be sunk? Moreover, *tightly packed* gun cotton will not explode when contacted with salt water.

The finding of deep sea diver John Light[5] of an outward rip on the opposite side (the port side) of the sunken *Lusitania* from where the torpedo hit (the starboard side) confirms the most logical explanation of what happened - a boiler exploded. The nineteen boilers of the *Lusitania* were under 195 pounds per square inch of pressure, so upon impact they could easily explode.[6] Wesley Frost, United States consul at Queenstown in 1915 wrote a book listing eighteen steamships that suffered bursting boilers after being torpedoed. He concluded that at least half of all steamships torpedoed sank in ten minutes or less.[7] Thus, the eighteen-minute sinking of the *Lusitania* doesn't seem so extraordinary.

Historian A incorrectly blames the extensive loss of life on the design of the *Lusitania*, charging that the longitudinal design caused the ship to list, thus preventing many lifeboats from being launched. However, the designer of a passenger liner cannot be asked to design a ship with a torpedo attack in mind. The *Lusitania* was designed to stay afloat from damage caused by ordinary maritime hazards (such as icebergs and storms).

When the *Lusitania* was sinking the *Juno* was sent out to rescue survivors and then recalled, as Historian A says. However, it should be noted that the original order to send the *Juno* out violated Admiralty policy. Many warships, such as the *Cressy* and the *Hogue*, had been sunk while trying to rescue survivors. The *Juno* would have been another sitting duck for torpedo attack. Admiral Coke only recalled the *Juno* when he learned that fourteen other ships were moving to the area. The *Juno* was not within sight of the passengers when it was ordered to turn around.

In the inquiry into the sinking of the *Lusitania* the British Admiralty found Captain Turner to bear a lot of the responsibility for the sinking. He had been warned four times that there were submarines in the area, but he failed to sail in midchannel, operate at full speed (he was going only 18 knots), or follow a zigzag course.[8] Had Captain Turner been in midchannel (rather than closer to shore where the ship was a better target) he would have missed the U-boat; had he steered a zigzag course he likely would have dodged the torpedo.

The sinking of the *Lusitania* did not happen at all the way that Historian A tells the story. The liner was not purposely used by the British Admiralty to draw the United States into World War I; it did not sink because the ammunition on board exploded; and the British did not cover up the sinking in the investigation which followed. The truth about the *Lusitania* shows the dangers of untrained amateurs who try to write history.

Footnotes
(Quotes indicate a direct quote from the source)

[1] Evidence of Germany trading with the British during the Boer War is contained in *Papers Relating to the Foreign Relations of the United States*, 1915 Supplement, (Washington, 1915), p. 795.

[2] The British Admiralty sent a wireless message to the *Lusitania* on the morning of May 7, 1915 that submarines were active in the southern part of the Irish Channel. Public Records Office, British Admiralty Files, 137/105, Frames 28-29 (Valencia Log).

[3] The location of where the torpedo struck the ship comes from the testimony of survivors of the *Lusitania*. Note in the drawing below how far the torpedo hit from the ammunition (about 150 feet) and the direct damage to the two boiler rooms:

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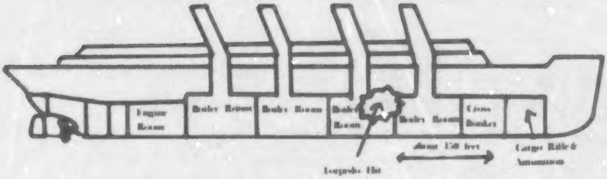
HISTORIAN B


Engine Room
Boiler Room
Boiler Room
Boiler Room
Boiler Room
Cross Bunker
about 150 feet
Cargo Rifle & Ammunition
Torpedo Hit

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[4] Carlton Savage, *Policy of the United States toward Maritime Commerce in War* (Washington, 1936) II, p. 335. Extensive field tests, including the burning of boxes of ammunition in open fires showed that munitions could not be exploded in one large explosion.

[5] Kenneth MacLeigh, "Was There a Gun?" *Sports Illustrated*, XVII December 24, 1962) 37 ff. This article describes Light's findings.

[6] When the *Lusitania* neared Liverpool England on February 5, 1915, Captain Dow said that he feared that his ship, if hit in the boilers by a torpedo, would be destroyed.

[7] Wesley Frost, German Submarine Warfare (New York, 1918), Chapters IV, V.

[8] One warning read, "Avoid headlands (the coastlands); pass harbours at full speed; steer midchannel course. Submarines off Fastnet (a marker off the coast of Ireland near where the *Lusitania* was sunk.)"

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WP-7 AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

HISTORIAN A (1934)

(I) In August, 1914 the State Department stated publicly that loans to the governments at war in Europe by American bankers would not be neutral, they would put the United States on the side of the Allies (England and France). (II) Later, however, the State Department got around its own statement by a trick. (III) The State Department in October, 1914 said that credits (which is just another name for loans) were different from loans and that it was all right for American banks (especially J. P. Morgan Bank) to give credits to the warring countries.

(IV) As soon as the credits were made the Allies used them to buy American goods to fight the war. (V) Since Germany couldn't buy American goods (because of the British blockade) the United States was now helping the Allies, but not Germany. (VI) That is, we were not neutral anymore.

(VII) This war trade with the Allies resulted in great prosperity for the United States—business profits were high, the gross national product was expanding, and unemployment was down. (VIII) Thus, the United States was dependent on England and France for its prosperity and this dependence made us unneutral. (IX) For example, we did not protest violations by England (our largest customer) of our neutral rights on the seas, while we protested loudly German violations of our rights.

(X) Other historians have argued that the main cause for the United States entry into World War I was the German submarine campaign. (XI) But that argument leaves out the fact that United States loans and supplies to the Allies already made us enemies of Germany, so we really forced Germany to use the submarines. (XII) Even the German decision to start unrestricted submarine warfare (the event which some argue led directly to the United States declaration of war) was forced by the United States. (XIII) The United States was already completely involved in the war except for sending troops, and the Allies, backed by American economic power, would have defeated Germany anyway. (XIV) The Germans took a gamble on their one chance for victory—it shortened the war but it did not change the outcome.

(XV) President Wilson's own words show that even in his view the granting of loans made us unneutral and forced us

HISTORIAN A

into World War I. (XVI) He stated in April, 1915 that "in the judgment of this government, loans by American bankers to any foreign nation which is at war, are inconsistent with the true spirit of neutrality." (XVII) As was shown above, the government allowed American bankers to make such loans. (XVIII) The fact that we changed the name from loans to credits made no difference - they still put us firmly on the Allied side.

(XIX) German submarines were not the main reason for the United States entry into World War I. (XX) Rather, United States loans and trade with the Allies forced the Germans to try unrestricted submarine warfare to stop aid from coming from a country (the United States) which was, in fact, already her enemy.

WP-7 AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

HISTORIAN B (1935, 1954)

(I) Recent viewpoints of the causes of American intervention into World War I have brought up many factors. (II) There is the suggestion by some historians of loans and the greed of U.S. capitalists. (III) There is talk by other historians of propaganda and sympathy for the Allies and even an upsetting of the balance of power in Europe if Germany won. (IV) None of these factors, however, shows how the U. S. might have stayed at peace--none conclusively shows why we went to war.

(V) Dominant sentiment in the U. S. was certainly pro-Ally. (VI) American economic prosperity, furthermore, depended upon the maintenance of our trade with the Allies. (VII) But it is a far cry from these facts to the assumption that because of them we adopted a policy which led us into war. (VIII) To do this, it would be necessary to show that emotional sympathy and material interests overcame the strong pacifistic sentiment (feelings against war) of Congress and the people. (IX) It would be necessary to show that these factors pushed Wilson to declare war over his own pacifistic sentiments.

(X) Wilson was sympathetic toward the Allies, but he also tried very hard to prevent that feeling from affecting U. S. policy. (XI) He protested not only German violations of American neutral rights on the seas, but also British violations. (XII) He sent notes of protest to England and in the summer of 1916 secured from Congress wide powers permitting him to prohibit loans and to impose embargoes if necessary against British violations. (XIII) True, U. S. actions against Britain were limited because the economic interests of the country lay with continuing the munitions trade. (XIV) But this only limited our quarrel with England, it does not show why we went to war against Germany.

(XV) It was the German submarine campaign which provided the reason for U. S. entrance into the War. (XVI) So long as the German government stuck to her *Sussex* pledge (a pledge not to attack unarmed neutral ships) Wilson would have continued with his neutral course forever. (XVII) America would have continued her main claim against Allied interference with American trade. (XVIII) "If Germany had not alienated American sympathies," wrote Colonel House (adviser to Wilson), "by her mode of warfare, the United States would not have put up with Allied control of American trade on the high seas." (XIX) For submarines were far different in effect than surface ships. (XX) Submarines sank ships and killed people, while surface ships stopped neutral vessels and seized illegal cargoes. (XXI) The submarine campaign, unlike the Allied blockade, involved undiscriminating destruction of American property rights. (XXII) It permitted no distinction between contraband (war goods) and free goods.

(XXIII) It is quite inexact to state that we were drawn into the war by our export of munitions which forced the Germans to adopt submarine warfare. (XXIV) For all the evidence available goes to show that even without American export of munitions to the Allies the Germans would have utilized the unrestricted submarine campaign, as the only effective means of striking at Great Britain.

(XXV) It is further from the truth to state that our intervention was determined by pressure from financial groups which had acquired a vast stake in the fortunes of the Allies. (XXVI) Whether the Allies won the war or not that stake was largely secure. (XXVII) Moreover, the businessmen and bankers with this stake had no means of exercising pressure upon the President or upon Congress. (XXVIII) We know as a historical fact that no effective pressure was exercised.

(XXIX) By injecting the submarine issue at recurringly critical moments from 1915 on, Germany herself made it difficult or impossible for America to meet Allied infractions of commercial rights. (XXX) It was the Germans who had alternatives available to them–they could accept Wilson's leadership in the peace program; they could continue their submarine campaign as it was; or they could try the desperate gamble of unrestricted submarine warfare. (XXXI) They chose the third alternative in the hopes of dominaton of Europe, if not the world.

(XXXII) It was the German decision for unrestricted submarine warfare, alone, therefore, which forced Wilson to take steps for war. (XXXIII) American ships were being sunk and American citizens were being killed on the high seas. (XXXIV) Considerations of America's alleged economic stake in an Allied victory did not influence Wilson's thoughts during the critical weeks from February 1 to April 2, 1917. (XXXV) Nor

WP-7 AMERICA BECOMES A WORLD POWER

HISTORIAN B

did considerations of the national interest or of the great ideological issues at stake in the conflict.

(XXXVI) Without the submarine campaign, we would not have entered the war, no matter what other circumstances there were.

DE-1 DEPRESSION ERA

At 3:00 p.m. on April 15, 1920 Frederick Parmenter, paymaster of the Slator and Morrill Shoe Company of Braintree, and Allessandro Beradelli, his guard, were murdered while taking the $15,776.51 payroll from the company's office to the factory. Two suspects, Nicola Sacco and Bartolomeo Vanzetti, were arrested and charged with the murder. Next to each piece of information below write (G) if it could be used to show that Sacco and Vanzetti were guilty, (I) if it could be used to show that they were innocent and (N) if it could not be used to show their guilt or innocence:

____ 1. Witnesses said the crime was committed by a gang of four or five men.

____ 2. The killers were identified by some witnesses as Italians and Sacco and Vanzetti were Italians.

____ 3. A similar crime was committed before this one in Bridgewater, Massachusetts. There were gangs in both. They were identified as Italians with a car.

____ 4. Sacco and Vanzetti were part of a gang and one of the gang members, named Boda, had a car.

____ 5. Sacco and Vanzetti were very nervous when arrested and they were armed with guns when arrested.

____ 6. When they were arrested, Sacco and Vanzetti lied to the police about why they went to get Boda's car and why they were armed.

____ 7. The gang to which Sacco and Vanzetti belonged believed in anarchism, that is, the radical idea that the government should be abolished. They claimed to be pacifists (people opposed to violence). They were against the United States government.

____ 8. When Sacco and Vanzetti were arrested they were dragged to the police station without being told what the charges were against them.

____ 9. As anarchists, Sacco and Vanzetti said they felt that no one would believe them had they said when they were arrested that they were armed to protect themselves and that they were afraid that anarchists were being persecuted (unjustly treated) by police.

____ 10. Vanzetti had already been convicted for a crime similar to this one in Bridgewater, Massachusetts.

DE-1 DEPRESSION ERA

____ 11. The police stopped their investigation after Sacco and Vanzetti were arrested.

____ 12. Two of the other men in the gang, Boda and Orciani, had alibis. That is, they gave evidence that they were somewhere else when the crime was committed.

____ 13. Witnesses at the scene of the crime said it all happened too fast to make positive identifications.

____ 14. At the police station, some witnesses identified Sacco while other witnesses identified Anthony Palmisano, who was in jail at the time of the crime.

____ 15. The judge in the case, Webster Thayer, wanted radicals to be put into jail.

____ 16. At the trial, seven witnesses positively identified Sacco and four witnesses identified Vanzetti as having committed the crime. All of these witnesses were upstanding citizens who would have nothing to gain by lying.

____ 17. Descriptions of the bandits varied considerably among the witnesses at first. Some witnesses described the criminals as light-skinned with blonde hair. Others described the bandits as dark-skinned and dark-haired. The latter characteristics fit Sacco and Vanzetti.

____ 18. One witness who identified Sacco at the trial said she could not make a positive identification when first questioned by police. She said the suspect she saw had large hands, but Sacco had rather small hands.

____ 19. Witnesses were called into jail before the trail, shown pictures of Sacco and Vanzetti, and asked if they were the criminals. No police line-up was used.

____ 20. Some witnesses said the men they saw at the scene of the crime were not Sacco and Vanzetti.

____ 21. Two ballistics experts said that four shells found at the scene of the crime were from a 32-calibre Colt automatic pistol revolver which Sacco carried and were similar in make to a cartridge Sacco carried in his pocket. One of the four shells was quite likely to have been fired from Sacco's gun, they said.

____ 22. A ballistics expert said that three slugs found in Parmenter had the same markings as slugs fired from Sacco's pistol. He said, therefore, that the slugs found in Parmenter could have come from that gun.

____ 23. Several witnesses said Vanzetti was in Plymouth all day on April 15, 1920. It was a year later when they said this, but they each could remember the day well because something elsesignificant happened to them that day.

____ 24. Several witnesses, including a clerk at the Italian consulate, stated that Sacco was in Boston all day on April 15, 1920. Though it was a year later when they said this, they could remember because there was a big rally that night.

____ 25. All witnesses to Sacco and Vanzetti's location in Boston and Plymouth on the day of the crime were Italian immigrants and many were friends of Sacco and Vanzetti.

____ 26. Celestiln Madieros, who was under indictment for murder, confessed to the Braintree slayings. He said that he and others from the Morelli gang of Providence, Rhode Island were involved. He gave a lot of factual details about the crime.

____ 27. Madieros shared a cell with Sacco in jail.

____ 28. A cap was found at the scene of the crime which was roughly the same size as a cap found in Sacco's kitchen. Sacco's employer identified the cap as being similar in color and appearance to one that he had seen Sacco wearing.

DE-2 DEPRESSION ERA

"(I) Actually, Warren G. Harding was a very good president. (II) You can't blame the Teapot Dome scandal on him because he didn't know about it or have anything to do with it."

____ 1. The conclusion is:
A. I C. The Teapot Dome scandal wasn't Harding's fault.
B. II D. None of the above

____ 2. What type of reasoning is this?
A. Analogy (comparison) C. Cause and Effect
B. Debating D. Proof

____ 3. What is a possible fallacy?
A. Hasty generalization (p.16) C. Negative proof (p.18)
B. Either/or (p.20) D. No fallacy

"(I) Prohibition led to a tremendous expansion of organized crime. (II) Organized crime grew by leaps and bounds in the 1920's when prohibition was in force."

____ 4. The conclusion is:
A. I C. Organized crime is bad for the country.
B. II D. None of the above.

____ 5. What type of reasoning is this?
A. Analogy (comparison) C. Cause and Effect
B. Generalization (sample) D. Proof
E. Debating

____ 6. What is a possible fallacy?
A. Prevalent proof (p.20) C. Equivocation (p.10)
B. Post hoc (p.17) D. Straw man (p.21)
E. No fallacy

Document evaluation:

____ 7. Which would be most reliable in assessing why there was a race riot in Chicago in 1919?

DE-2 DEPRESSION ERA

A. A radio interview with the head of the KKK in which he says the blacks started it.

B. A police report by a patrolman of a mugging of a black man on the night the riot started. The mugging took place two blocks from the point where the riot began.

C. A bystander account in a newspaper interview the next day of an incident between three whites and two blacks and of the beginning of the riot.

D. An explanation of the riot in police records by a black man in which he says the blacks started it.

HISTORIAN A

When the stock crash took place in the last months of 1929 America plunged into its worst depression ever. The seeds for the depression lay in the seemingly prosperous American economy of the 1920's. For although the economy expanded in the '20's there were a number of weaknesses in it.

First, there were several weak industries in the 1920's, notably agriculture, textiles, and coal mining. Second, there was the phenomenon of technological unemployment. With more machines used to make goods, some workers were laid off. The result was that, although employment increased in the 1920's, it did not increase fast enough to keep up with population growth. Even in the best years of the 1920's there were 1.5 million people unemployed. Third, the income of the country was concentrated more in the hands of the wealthy. The poor people did not share equally in the prosperity of the 1920's. Fourth, Americans experienced numerous foreign trade problems, especially with Europe in the 1920's.

HISTORIAN B

The economic collapse of 1929, known as the Great Depression, was caused by several weaknesses in the American economy of the 1920's. These weaknesses included the decline of certain industries, especially agriculture; technological unemployment; and foreign trade problems. However, the most important weakness in the economy was the unequal distribution of income in the 1920's. Although wages went up during the decade, business profits went up much faster. Since profits and the income of rich people are used largely to produce goods, and since wages are used largely to consume goods, a situation of overproduction resulted. That is, more goods were produced than were being bought. This led to the stock collapse when businesses started declining, and then eventually to the Depression itself.

HISTORIAN C

The stock crash of 1929 obviously caused the Great Depression which followed it. There are three ways the crash contributed to the economic decline: 1. It reduced the money wealth of households, which caused less spending; 2. It deprived businesses of an important way of raising money (through stocks) for investment; and 3. It caused people to take

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a pessimistic view of the economy, thereby reducing investment. With spending and investment in decline, the economy had to decline.

HISTORIAN D

It goes without saying that the stock crash of 1929 caused the Great Depression. Throughout 1928 and 1929, people kept speculating on the great bull market. That is, they bought shares of stock on the gamble that the price of the stock would keep going up, rather than on the basis of the real value of the stock. The speculative boom was fueled by easy credit policies, especially buying on margin. Individuals could buy stocks on margin by putting down as little as 10 percent of the amount purchased and borrowing the other 90 percent from the stock broker. With people bidding on the stocks with borrowed money, stock prices soared. However, when the prices started declining in October 1929 many people had to sell fast in order to pay back their loans. Thus the initial downturn in stock prices turned into a collapse.

HISTORIAN E

In 1929 the American economy went into a recession. There is no need to explain why this occurred since the regular ups and downs of an economy cause periodic recessions as a matter of course. The important question is why the economy did not recover within a year, as it usually does, but rather plunged into the worst Depression in our history.

The answer to the question is that the supply of money shrank, causing less spending and thus higher unemployment. The money supply shrank, first because there was a bank panic. People started withdrawing their deposits, and since bank deposits weren't insured by the government (called F.D.I.C. today), the other depositors removed their money before they lost it. As deposits were reduced, loans were called in and the money supply was drastically reduced.

Second, the Federal Reserve Bank took no action to stop the money supply from shrinking. In fact, in 1931 it actually took steps that made the supply of money even smaller! The stock of money continued to decline up to 1933. By that time it was 33 percent *smaller* than it had been in 1929. Notice how close that reduction is to the 36 percent drop in national income which occurred during the same four years.

As the supply of money shrank, people had less money with which to buy goods and services. Consequently prices fell and fewer goods were sold. With fewer goods being sold fewer goods were made, unemployment went up, and national income and GNP declined. The country was plunged into the Depression, not by businessmen but by poor government policy in not protecting the banking industry and by the foolish policy of the Federal Reserve Bank (a government agency) in reducing the money supply at the very time when the country needed a larger supply of money.

HISTORIAN F

The stock market crash of 1929 was one factor that contributed to the Great Depression, but it was not an important factor. By reducing people's wealth, the crash caused a decline in spending, but the decline was not large enough to cause the tremendous drop in national income that occurred from 1929 to 1933.

Rather, the Depression was caused mainly by the dramatic decline in consumption in 1930. For some as yet unexplained reasons buying declined greatly in 1930 -- the drop was five times as large as the drop in 1929.

The decline caused investments to fall in turn. This decline in consumption also caused the decline in the supply of money, not the other way around. For, if the money supply had declined first, short-term interest rates would have been high (since the supply of money would have been smaller than the demand). But short-term interest rates were actually low, showing that the demand for money (due to less spending) was lower than the supply.

Thus, other theories do not adequately show what primarily caused the Great Depression. The best explanation is the decline in spending during 1930.

DE-4 DEPRESSION ERA

WORKSHEET ON NEW DEAL PROPOSALS

Assume that it is 1933 and the U. S. is in the worst depression in its history. Label each of the proposals below with the letter corresponding to its position on the political spectrum. That is, if you feel a proposal is radical, you would put an "A" on the line next to the proposal

A	B	C	D	E
RADICAL	LIBERAL	MODERATE	CONSERVATIVE	REACTIONARY

____ 1. Government should plan our economy. With central planning by the government, the economy could grow without having periodic business depressions. Public goals, such as more economic equality, should, if necessary, be forced on businessmen.

____ 2. The government should help business out to restore public confidence in the economy. We should tax the rich businessmen less and the government should give subsidies (aid, which saves business money) to businessmen. The businessmen will use this help to expand production, they will hire more workers, and the economy will get moving again. There should be a minimum of welfare for the poor as this drains off money from the businesses.

____ 3. The government should get the businesses together and set up a planning agency (run by the government) to help businesses get going again. Within the agency the businesses would set up their own guidelines and regulations. For example, they could charge higher prices and they could cooperate rather than compete. Of course, the government would watch over the agency, but the businessmen would run the agency They know how to get business going again.

____ 4. The government must balance the budget. In this way government spending will be controlled. Almost all businessmen believe this is a healthy way to run both government and business. Thus their confidence will be restored in the economy, they will expand production, and the economy will get moving again.

DE-4 DEPRESSION ERA

____ 5. The government must give much more welfare relief for the millions of people who are suffering from the Depression. It is the obligation of government to protect its poorer citizens from such suffering. The money to pay for the welfare should come from heavier taxes on rich people. If the poor have more money, they will buy more products and business will be able to expand. In this way the country will get out of the Depression.

____ 6. To get out of the Depression, the government should deficit spend--that is, it should spend much more money than it takes in through taxes. By pumping more money into the economy the government would stimulate more spending by both consumers and business, and would thus get the economy moving again.

____ 7. What the country should do is adopt a "share the wealth plan" program. The government should confiscate (take away) all the wealth of people who have more than $50,000 and share it with the poor who are suffering.

____ 8. The government should expand the military and start a huge arms build up. All the people will then be employed, people will feel they are contributing to the strength of the nation, and businessmen and government would be cooperating to get the country out of the Depression. People should be made to think of what is good for our nation, and not themselves.

____ 9. The workers must take over all the industries in the country. The government, controlled by the common people, should abolish (do away with) private ownership of businesses and bring about real equality. Through this takeover, the workers would no longer be exploited by the businessmen and would be truly free. Only in this way can the country get out of the Depression and avoid future depressions.

____ 10. Private charities should help the poor to survive. The government really has no legitimate role in aiding the poor. In fact, government welfare causes people to lose incentive to work–it destroys the moral fiber of the country.

DE-5 DEPRESSION ERA

IF-THEN REASONING

Suppose we wanted to test a historian's theory that the New Deal was the main reason why the country recovered from the Depression during the 1930's (after 1933). Certain things should be true if this theory is true. Stated another way, this would be "If the New Deal was the main reason why the country recovered from the Depression of the 1930's, then . . . ." Which of the following should be true completions of this statement? (Mark "true", leave the others blank).

Remember: You are not answering true or false. You are answering true if it *must* be true, and nothing if it doesn't have to be true.)

____ 1. . . ., Then the GNP should have expanded significantly after the New Deal began in 1933.

____ 2. . . ., then the U. S. should not have become involved in World War II.

____ 3. . . ., then the U. S. should have stayed on the gold standard in the 1930's, after 1933.

____ 4. . . ., then unemployment should have declined in the 1930's, after 1933.

____ 5. . . ., then businessmen should have been supporters of the New Deal in the late 1930's.

____ 6. . . ., then the GNP should have expanded after 1940.

____ 7. . . ., then the New Deal should have been popular with voters during the 1930's.

____ 8. . . ., then wealth should have been more evenly distributed after the New Deal programs began.

____ 9. . . ., then business production should have increased after New Deal programs began.

DE-6A DEPRESSION ERA

HISTORIAN A

(I) The New Deal basically rescued capitalism from its own abuses. (II) By 1933 many Americans were upset with the capitalist system. (III) Franklin Roosevelt brought needed government involvement in and reform to the system and thereby prevented the possibility of revolution. (IV) Businessmen who are so critical of the New Deal should instead be grateful for it.

1. What is main point of Historian A?

2. What is an unstated assumption which Historian A makes?

____ 3. What is a possible fallacy which Historian A commits?

A. *Ad Hominem*
B. Numbers

C. False Scenario
D. Prevalent proof

E. No fallacy

____ 4. This historian is most likely:

A. Favorable to Roosevelt.
B. Unfavorable to Roosevelt.
C. Neutral regarding Roosevelt.
D. Has no opinion regarding Roosevelt.

5. What word in this argument shows the historian's point of view regarding Roosevelt and the New Deal?

HISTORIAN B

(I) The New Deal brought a radical break with the past by greatly expanding government involvement in the economy. (II) President Roosevelt put the U. S. firmly on the road toward the welfare state by initiating government meddling in many areas of individual's lives. (III) The New Deal suffered from the same flaws that today's government programs do-- contradictory, haphazard programs which do not accomplish all their original goals.

6. What is the main point of Historian B?

____ 7. This historian is most likely:

- A. Favorable to Roosevelt.
- B. Unfavorable to Roosevelt.
- C. Neutral regarding Roosevelt.
- D. Has no opinion regarding Roosevelt.

8. What word in this argument shows this historian's point of view regarding Roosevelt and the New Deal?

9. Explain what is wrong with the argument in sentence III.

DE-6B DEPRESSION ERA

HISTORIAN A

(I) The New Deal hurt our country a great deal. (II) True, our economy was in bad shape in 1932, but the New Deal only made matters worse in the long run. (III) The Roosevelt Administration allowed intellectuals and socialists into the government, and these men used their positions to interfere with the normal functioning of the economy. (IV) There was too much experimentation--the New Deal confused action with progress.

(V) One of the biggest problems created by the New Deal was an expanding bureaucracy. (VI) The federal government got much larger which led to many of the problems we have today–waste, corruption, inefficiency and high taxes. (VII) Our national debt rose from $19 billion in 1932 to $40 billion in 1939. (VIII) People started thinking that America was a "Handout State" which could use unlimited spending to cure problems. (IX) The give-away programs are continuing to ruin the moral fiber of America–people don't want to work when they are taken care of by the government.

(X) The New Deal also created class jealousies. (XI) Businessmen felt it pampered the workers and farmers while putting all kinds of regulations on them. (XII) They felt private enterprise was being strangled by creeping socialism.

(XIII) One of the biggest criticisms of the New Deal, however, is that it didn't do what it set out to do--it didn't get the country out of the Depression. (XIV) In 1938 the economy was still sick–with a low GNP and high unemployment. (XV) It remained for World War II to get us out of the Depression.

DE-6B DEPRESSION ERA

HISTORIAN B

(I) Franklin Roosevelt provided strong leadership in the 1930's, when the country sorely needed it. (II) No one really knows how far his New Deal got us out of the Depression because World War II came along and pulled us back to complete prosperity. (III) We do know that the country was becoming more prosperous by 1936.(IV)But then a recession hit and we lost it all. (V) To what extent the recession was a temporary setback in an otherwise general trend toward prosperity is a matter of opinion.

(VI) Even if the New Deal did not completely get the country out of the Depression, however, it must be remembered that its main goal was relief, not recovery. (VII) Under it no one was allowed to starve--everyone kept his self respect. (VIII) Thus, the New Deal relieved the worst crisis of 1933 and saved the economy from collapse or revolution. (IX) Those businessmen who criticize the New Deal owe their livelihood partly to the efforts of Roosevelt.

(X) The New Deal also achieved long-term reform of our economy. (XI) It changed our country to the philosphy that the government has a legitimate role to play in the economy to prevent mass hunger and injustice. (XII) In the process the New Deal achieved a fairer distribution of national income and purged capitalism of some of its worst abuses.

CO-1 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN A

1 **Some historians argue that dropping the atomic bombs on Japan was justified because it shortened the War and thus saved lives in the end. But this view is wrong. The United States was not justified in dropping the bombs.**

2 **In the summer of 1945 the Japanese were almost totally defeated. American ships and planes pounded the island without any response by the Japanese. Leaders in Japan were trying to surrender and American leaders knew it. Several times the Japanese went to the Russians to ask them to mediate a peace settlement with the United States.[1] (It is not unusual for a country that wants to surrender to ask another country to speak for it at first and help negotiate a settlement.) There was only one condition that the Japanese insisted on – they wanted to keep their Emperor, the symbol of Japanese culture. The United States never even talked with the Japanese about surrender terms. Instead, American leaders kept demanding unconditional surrender. Then, after we used the bombs and the Japanese did surrender we let the Japanese keep their Emperor anyway. We could have had the Japanese surrender earlier and saved all those lives obliterated by the bombs by letting them have their one condition in the first place.**

3 **If the bombs were not used to bring about surrender, then why were they used? The plain truth is that they were used to scare Russia. The United States was not getting along with the Soviet Union in regard to Europe in 1945. Our leaders felt that by showing the Russians that we had this powerful weapon we would get them to agree to our terms in Europe and Asia. As Secretary of War Stimson said in his diary, in diplomacy the bomb would be a "master card".[2]**

4 **President Truman had an important meeting scheduled with the Russian leader, Josef Stalin,at Potsdam, Germany in July, 1945. He wanted to have the bomb completed and successfully tested when he went to the meeting. Atomic Scientist Robert Oppenheimer said, "We were under incredible pressure to get it (the bomb) done before the Potsdam meeting."[3] Truman hoped to have the bomb sticking out of his hip pocket, so to speak, when he negotiated with Stalin. In this way, he could make new**

demands to the Russians about eastern Europe. He told some of his friends at Potsdam, before the final test, "If it explodes as I think it will, I'll certainly have a hammer on those boys."[4]

5 When the bomb was successfully tested in New Mexico while he was negotiating in Potsdam, Truman did become more demanding with Stalin. Secretary of War Stimson stated, "He (Truman) said it (the bomb)gave him an entirely new feeling of confidence. . . ."[5]

6 But the Russians had to see the power of the bomb before the United States could intimidate them with it. This was accomplished at Hiroshima. Truman remarked, "This is the greatest thing in history!"[6]"

7 A second motive for dropping the bomb was to end the War in Asia before the Russians could get involved. True, the Japanese were talking of surrender, but the United States wanted surrender within days, not a negotiated surrender that could take weeks to bring about. The problem was that the Russians had agreed at Yalta to enter the war against Japan three months after the end of the war in Europe, which was three months after May 9th, or somewhere around August 9th. If the Russians got involved in the war in Asia they could spread Communism to China and other countries and possibly to Japan itself. American leaders did not want to see that happen.[7]

8 If we could speed up the Japanese surrender we could avoid all these problems. We dropped the first bomb on August 6; Russia entered the war on August 8, and we dropped the second bomb on August 9. Don't these dates look suspicious? No country could surrender in only three days—it takes longer than that to make such an important decision. We wouldn't wait longer because we wanted them to surrender before the Russians could get involved.

9 Some scientists who worked on the bomb recommended that it not be dropped on people. Rather, they proposed that the United States demonstrate the bomb's power to some Japanese leaders by dropping it on an uninhabited island. But American political leaders rejected this idea. The devastating effect of the bomb had to be shown by destroying a city.

CO-1 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN A

Even the top military leaders opposed the use of the 10 atomic bomb.[8] The bomb would have little effect on the war, they argued, since the Japanese were already trying to surrender.

All this evidence shows that the atomic bombs were not used to end the war and save lives, but rather to scare the Russians and speed up the end of the war before Russian 11 influence spread further into Asia. The killing of over 100,000 civilians in one country in order to scare the leaders in another country was wrong. The United States was not justified in dropping the atomic bombs.

Footnotes-All are direct quotes from the sources cited.

[1] Gar Alperovitz (a historian), *Atomic Diplomacy (1965)*. Quotes are from *Foreign Relations Papers of the United States: Conference at Berlin*, Vol. II, pp. 1249, 1250, 1260, 1261.

> On July 17, the day of the first plenary session, another intercepted Japanese message showed that although the government felt that the unconditional surrender formula involved too great a dishonor, it was convinced that "the demands of the times" made Soviet mediation to terminate the war absolutely essential. Further cables indicated that the one condition the Japanese asked was preservation of "our form of government' A message of July 25 revealed instructions to the (Japanese) Ambassador in Moscow to go anywhere to meet with (Soviet Foreign Minister) Molotov during the recess of the Potsdam meeting so as to "impress them with the sincerity of our desire" to terminate the war. He was told to make it clear that "we should like to communicate to the other party (the United States) through appropriate channels that we have no objection to a peace based on the Atlantic Charter". The only "difficult point is the . . . . formality of unconditional surrender".

James F. Byrnes (Secretary of State), *All in One Lifetime*, p. 297.

> July 28: Secretary Forrestal arrived and told me in detail of the intercepted messages from the Japanese government to Ambassador Sato in Moscow, indicating Japan's willingness to surrender.

[2] Stimson Diary, May 15:

> The trouble is that the President has now promised apparently to meet Stalin and Churchill on the first of July (at Potsdam) and at that time these questions will become burning and it may become necessary to have it out with Russia on her relations to Manchuria and Port Arthur and various other parts of North China, and also the relations of China to us. Over any such tangled web of problems the S-1 secret (the atomic bomb) would be dominant and yet we will not know until after ... that meeting, whether this is a weapon in our hands or not. We think it will be shortly afterwards, but it seems a terrible thing to gamble with such big stakes in diplomacy without having your master card in your hand.

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CO-1 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN A

Leo Szilard (an atomic scientist who opposed use of the bombs on Japan), Conversation with Secretary of State Byrnes. Recorded on August 25, 1944 in Stewart to Bush, Atomic Energy Commission Document 299. Manhattan Engineering District - Top Secret, National Archives, Record Group 77, Box 7, folder 12; box 14, folder 4:

> (Szilard argued that we should not use the bomb.)
> Byrnes - Our possessing and demonstrating the bomb would make Russia more manageable in Europe.
> Szilard - (The) interests of peace might best be served and an arms race avoided by not using the bomb against Japan, keeping it secret, and letting the Russians think that our work on it had not succeeded.
> Byrnes - How would you get Congress to appropriate money for atomic energy research ifyou do not show results for the money which has been spent already?

[3] Atomic Energy Commission, Oppenheimer Hearings, p. 31.

[4] Jonathan Daniels (biographer), *The Man of Independence* (1950),p. 266.

[5] *Foreign Relations Papers of the United States: Conference at Berlin*, 1945, Vol. II, p. 1361.

Stimson, Diary, July 22:

> Churchill read Grove's report (on the successful testing of the atomic bomb in New Mexico) in full .... He said, "Now I know what happened to Truman yesterday. I couldn't understand it. When he got to the meeting after having read this report he was a changed man. He told the Russians just where they got on and off and generally bossed the whole meeting."

[6] Harry S. Truman, *Year of Decisions*, p. 421.

[7] Byrnes, *All in One Lifetime*, p. 300:

> Though there was an understanding that the Soviets would enter the war three months after Germany surrendered, the President and I hoped that Japan would surrender before then.

Secretary of War Stimson stated in his diary on August 10, 1945 that he urged the President that:

> the thing to do was to get this surrender through as quickly as we can before Russia should get down in reach of the Japanese homeland.... It was of great importance to get the homeland into our hands before the Russians could put in any substantial claim to occupy and help rule it.

[8] General Dwight Eisenhower, statement in "Ike on Ike", *Newsweek*, November 11, 1963, p. 107:

> I voiced to him (Secretary of War Stimson) my grave misgivings, first on the basis of my belief that Japan was already defeated and that dropping the bomb was completely unnecessary and secondly, because I thought our country should avoid shocking world opinion by the use of a weapon whose employment was, I thought, no longer necessary as a measure to save American lives. It was my belief that Japan was, at that very moment, seeking some way to surrender with a minimum loss of "face"....It wasn't necessary to hit them with that awful thing.

Admiral W. D. Leahy, *I Was There* (1950), p.441:

> It was my opinion that the use of this barbarous weapon at Hiroshima and Nagasaki was of no material assistance in our war against Japan. The Japanese were already defeated and ready to surrender....

Air Force Chief of Staff Lemay, *New York Herald Tribune*, September 21, 1945:

> The atomic bomb had nothing to do with the end of the war.

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CO-1 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN B

1 The dropping of atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki helped the United States avoid a costly invasion of Japan. It therefore saved lives in the long run which makes it a justifiable action.

2 It is true that the United States received some indication in the summer of 1945 that Japan was trying to surrender. However, Japan would not surrender unconditionally and that was very important to the United States. The Germans had not surrendered unconditionally at the end of World War I and as a result they rose again to bring on World War II. The United States was not going to let that mistake happen again. As President Roosevelt said, "this time there will be no doubt about who defeated whom."[1]

3 Although the Japanese military situation in July, 1945 was approaching total defeat, many Japanese leaders hoped for one last ditch victory in order to get softer peace terms.[2] One of their hopes was to divide the Grand Alliance by getting Russia (which was not at the time at war with Japan) to be the intermediary for peace negotiations. Maybe the Allies would begin to disagree, the Japanese militarists reasoned, and Japan would get off easy. Their other hope was that they could inflict enough casualties on the American troops, or hold out long enough, to get the American public to pressure their leaders to accept something less than unconditional surrender. [3]

4 Some historians argue that the only issue which prevented the Japanese from accepting unconditional surrender was their fear that the Emperor would be removed by the Americans. American leaders, however, believed that allowing this one condition would enourage the militarists in Japan to further resistance. Americans also felt it would weaken the war effort in the United States since we would be deviating from our well-publicized policy of unconditional surrender.[4]

5 In fact, however, some Japanese leaders wanted much more than just the one condition of keeping their Emperor. They wanted their troops to surrender to them, and they wanted no occupation of Japan or war crimes trials of Japanese leaders. Even on August 9 after the bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki and after the Russian declaration

of war against them, the Japanese leaders still could not agree to surrender.[5] This shows that the bombs were necessary - anything less than the bombs or invasion would not have brought about unconditional surrender.

6 Some people believe that the dates of the dropping of the bombs (August 6 and 9) show that the United States dropped them to stop the Russian entry into the war (August 8). There are two problems with this line of reasoning. First, the United States didn't know the exact date of Russian entry. Second, the bombs were to be dropped when a military officer decided that the weather was just right.[6] If Truman wanted to beat the Russians, why didn't he have the bombs dropped sooner, or why didn't he give in on unconditional surrender?

7 The argument that the United States dropped the bombs in order to threaten the Russians in Europe is also weak. The fact that we were so unsuccessful in getting the Russians to agree to our policies in Europe shows that the bomb wasn't used for that reason. It must have been used rather to shorten the war. It certainly didn't scare the Russians.

8 Some American scientists opposed using the bomb on civilian or military targets, but rather recommended using it as a demonstration on an uninhabited island. This recommendation was studied carefully by a committee (called the Interim Committee) set up to consider how to use the bomb. The committee said that a demonstration could have had a lot of problems which would have wasted one of the bombs and precious time. In light of the fact that it took two bombs dropped on cities to bring about a surrender, the demonstration idea does not seem like it would have been effective. The committee recommended the bombs be used against military targets.[7]

9 It is important to remember that on July 26, 1945 the United States warned the Japanese that we would use the atomic bomb against them unless they accepted unconditional surrender.[8] But the fanatical Japanese leaders would not give in. They said they would ignore the warning.[9] Thus, the loss of life of the atomic bombings was the responsibility of the Japanese leaders, not the Americans.

CO-1 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN B

The United States was right in insisting on unconditional surrender. Since the Japanese would not surrender unconditionally, and since a demonstration bombing would not have been effective, the only alternative to using the atomic bombs was continuing the war. This would have cost hundreds of thousands more lives. Thus, in the long run the use of the atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki shortened the war and saved lives.

Footnotes - Historian B All are quotes from the sources cited.

[1] President Roosevelt at a press conference, F.D.R.: *Public Papers of the Presidents*, Vol. XIII, p. 210:

> Practically all Germans deny the fact they surrendered in the last war, but this time they are going to know it. And so are the Japs.

[2] *Command Decisions* (a history of World War II), p. 504 quotes a study done by Brigadier General George A. Lincoln, 4 June 1945:

> In allied intelligence Japan was portrayed as a defeated nation whose military leaders were blind to defeat. . . . Japan was still far from surrender. She had ample reserves of weapons and ammunition and an army of 5,000,000 troops, 2,000,000 of them in the home islands. . . . In the opinion of the intelligence experts, neither blockade nor bombing alone would produce unconditional surrender before the date set for invasion (November, 1945). And the invasion itself, they believed, would be costly and possibly prolonged.

[3] *Command Decisions*, p. 517:

> The militarists (in the Japanese Government) could and did minimize the effects of the bomb, but they could not evade the obvious consequences of Soviet intervention, which ended all hope of dividing their enemies and securing softer peace terms.

[4] *Command Decisions*, pp. 512 513, summarizing former Secretary of State Cordell Hull, *Memoirs*, Vol. II, p. 1593:

> (Cordell) Hull's view... was that the proposal (by Secretary of War Stimson to let the Japanese keep the Emperor) smacked of appeasement....The proposal to retain the imperial system might well encourage resistance (by the Japanese) and have "terrible political repercussions" in the United States.

[5] Robert Butow (a historian), *Japan's Decision to Surrender* (1959), pp. 161, 163, 164. (Describing the debate among the six Japanese leaders about whether to surrender, August 9, 1945):

> While Susuki, (Prime Minister), Togo (Foreign Minister) and Yonai (Navy Minister) were committed in varying degrees to an outright acceptance (of the Potsdam Declaration demanding unconditional surrender) on the basis of the sole reservation that the Imperial house would be maintained, Anami (War Minister), Umezu (Army Chief of Staff), and Toyoda (Navy Chief of Staff), felt quite differently . . . What gagged these men - all true "Samurai" bred in an uncompromising tradition - were the other points Yonai had mentioned. They wanted either to prevent a security occupation entirely or to exclude at least the metropolis of Tokyo. . . . So far as war criminals were concerned, they felt it should be Japan and not the victorious enemy who must try such cases. In effect, they also wanted to accept the surrender of their own men. . . .

CO-1 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN B

From the standpoint of making postwar rationalizations and of "opening up the future of the country" it was psychologically vital for the Japanese army and navy to make it appear as if they had voluntarily disbanded their military might in order to save the nation and the world at large from the continued ravages of war. If they could do this, they could very easily later plant an appealing suggestion to the effect that the imperial forces of Great Japan had not really suffered defeat at all. For this reason, too, a security occupation and war crimes trials conducted by Allied tribunals had to be avoided at all costs. . . .

Togo pointedly asked whether Japan could win the war if a collapse of this type (of negotiations) occurred. To this the military heads could only reply that although they were not certain of *ultimate* victory, they were still capable of one more campaign – a "decisive" battle in the homeland. . . . The Council was deadlocked.

[6] Memorandum to Major General L. R. Groves from Brigadier General T. F. Farrell Subject: Report on Overseas Operations - Atomic Bomb:

27 September, 1945

After the Hiroshima strike we scheduled the second attack for 11 August (local time). On learning that bad weather was predicted for that time, we reviewed the status of the assembly work for the Fat Man (the second atomic bomb), our uncompleted test program, and readiness of the planes and crews. It was determined that with an all-out effort, everything could be ready for takeoff on the early morning of 9 August (local time), provided our final test of the Fat Man proved satisfactory, which it did. The decision turned out to be fortunate in that several days of bad weather followed 9 August.

[7] Interim Committee report, June 1, 1945, from Harry S. Truman, *Year of Decisions*, p. 419.

Recommend unanimously:

1. The bomb should be used against Japan as soon as possible.
2. It should be used against a military target surrounded by other buildings.
3. It should be used without prior warning of the nature of the weapon.

[8] Proclamation for Unconditional Surrender, July 26, 1945. *Foreign Relations Papers of the United States: Potsdam Papers*, Vol. II, p. 1258:

Section 13: We call upon the Government of Japan to proclaim now the unconditional surrender of all the Japanese armed forces, and to provide proper and adequate assurance of their good faith in such action. The alternative for Japan is prompt and utter destruction.

[9] *Foreign Relations Papers of the United States: Potsdam Papers*, Document 12518, July 28, 1945:

Japanese Prime Minister Suzuki to reporters:

I believe the Joint Proclamation (the Potsdam Proclamation – warning Japan to accept unconditional surrender) by the three countries is nothing but a rehash of the Cairo Declaration (which also called on Japan to surrender). As for the (Japanese) Government, it does not find any important value in it, and there is no other recourse but to ignore it entirely and resolutely fight for the successful conclusion of the war.

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CO-2 COLD WAR

Some arguments contain value judgments. In order to evaluate the value judgments you need to be able to separate them from the factual part of the arguments, then think of cases where the value judgment would apply. See pages 6-8 of your *Guide to Critical Thinking* for more explanaton on how to evaluate value judgments.

1. **"The United States promised in the Yalta Agreement that Russia would get $10 billion in reparations from Germany. Later the United States broke the Agreement. Thus, it was America that caused the disagreements about reparations."**

   Conclusion:

   Factual:

   Value judgment:

   Case where this value judgment might be wrong:

2. **"The U.S.S.R. promised to hold free elections in eastern Europe and then didn't hold them. This is onc of the main causes of the Cold War."**

   Conclusion:

   Factual:

   Value judgment:

   Case where this value judgment might be wrong:

3. **"The U.S.S.R. didn't appreciate our lend-lease aid during World War II, so we were justified in cutting off the aid as soon as the war ended."**

Conclusion:

Factual:

Value judgment:

Case where this value judgment might be wrong:

4. **"The U.S.S.R. took eastern Europe to prevent a possible future German attack. The Russians couldn't let Germany attack them again."**

Conclusion:

Factual:

Value judgment:

Case where this value judgment might be wrong:

CO-3 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN A

1 Traditionalist historians believe that Soviet domination of eastern Europe was the main cause of the Cold War. However, a closer examination of what happened at the end of World War II reveals many weaknesses in this naively patriotic view of the origins of the Cold War. United States policy, not Soviet aggression, was the key to the problems between Russia and America.

2 It is important to remember that the Soviet Union was invaded by Germany through eastern Europe during World War II. In this invasion millions of Soviets were killed. Josef Stalin, the Soviet leader, was committed to preventing any future invasions. He wanted governments in eastern Europe that would be friendly with the Soviet Union. Future aggressors would thereby have to attack these countries before reaching Soviet soil.

3 Stalin believed in spheres of influence and he thought he had an understanding with Prime Minister Churchill and President Roosevelt that eastern Europe was in the Soviet sphere of influence. After all,Britain had her own sphere of influence in the worldwide British Empire and the United States had its sphere in influence in Latin America. The United States telling Russia to give up its domination over Rumania would be like the Soviets telling the Americans to give up their domination over Mexico.

4 Moreover, Stalin and Churchill had made an agreement in October, 1944 to divide eastern Europe into spheres of influence: Rumania and Bulgaria were to be the "main concern" of the USSR, Greece was to be the "main concern" of Britain, and the two countries would have equal concern in Hungary and Yugoslavia.[1] When the United States approved the agreement on a trial basis,[2] Stalin must surely have felt that the three powers had reached an understanding that Europe was to be divided into spheres. Later when the British smashed the Communists in Greece, Stalin did not help the Greek Communists, showing that he would abide by the agreement.[3]

It was under these circumstances that the Russians moved into eastern Europe as they pushed back the Nazi

5 invaders at the end of World War II. It is important to remember that most of the eastern European countries had never been democratic and three of them (Rumania, Bulgaria, and Hungary) were allied with Germany during the War. Under the conditions of war, moreover, the Soviets sometimes had to take harsh measures in the areas they captured.

6 Nevertheless, the Soviets did allow considerable freedom in eastern Europe. Free elections were held in several countries. Bulgaria's elections under Soviet occupation were declared to be the freest in the country's history.[4] Many Communists were elected throughout eastern Europe since Communists were popular, especially with poor peasants. The Communists were popular because they had been underground fighters against the Germans and because they believed in dividing up the wealthy landowners' property among the peasants.[5]

7 One country in eastern Europe presented special problems for the Soviets — Poland. The Poles had a government in exile in London, England during the War (Poland had been conquered by Germany in 1939). The London Poles were hostile to Russia even before the Yalta Conference (where issues related to Poland were negotiated). They demanded that Poland keep some Russian territory which Poland captured from Russia in 1920. Even Churchill agreed with the Russian claim to the land.[6] And they threatened to have the Polish underground fight the Russians (which would help the Germans) if the Russians moved into Poland before agreeing that the Poles would get the disputed land.[7]

8 At Yalta in February, 1945, Stalin insisted that the Lublin Poles (Polish Communist leaders who were pro-Soviet) control the new Polish government. However, he compromised and allowed the London Poles to have six of the twenty ministries in the new government. President Roosevelt himself said that the Lublin Poles were the basis of the new government according to the Yalta Agreements.[8]

Stalin even agreed in the Declaration of Liberated Europe to the idea of free elections in eastern Europe. He

knew that Roosevelt was interested, however, primarily in
the *promise* of free elections. Roosevelt had told Stalin in
1943 at the Teheran Conference that he would not oppose
Stalin's dominance over eastern Europe as long as it did not
upset the millions of American voters of eastern-European
9 background. He told the Soviet leader that the promise of
an election would make Soviet dominance more acceptable
to the American public.[9] The Declaration of Liberated
Europe only called for the three powers (Britain, America,
and Russia) to consult each other about starting self-
governments – no country was obligated to do anything
specific.[10] Stalin realized that the Declaration of Liberated
Europe and the Agreement on Poland were negotiated by
the Americans primarily to please the voters at home.

So the United States, Britain, and the Soviet Union had
reached a series of agreements and understandings about
the Soviet sphere of influence in eastern Europe up to
10 April, 1945. Within their sphere, the Soviets showed
flexibility. In some countries there was considerable
freedom and elections were held. However, all countries
had to meet with Stalin's one overriding requirement – they
all had to be friendly to the Soviet Union.

Then Roosevelt died and all the agreements and
understandings fell apart. Harry Truman became
President and, backed by the atomic bomb, he soon began
attacking the Soviet sphere in eastern Europe. He said the
11 Lublin Poles should not control most of the ministries in
the Polish Government. He said the Russians could "go to
hell."[11] The United States threatened the Soviets and began
building up Germany again – the very thing the Russians
feared most!

The Russians began to tighten their grip on eastern
Europe in response to these American threats, although
they still allowed considerable freedom in Hungary,
Bulgaria, Austria, and Czechoslovakia in 1945 and 1946.
12 Then in 1947 President Truman declared Cold War on the
Soviet Union. In the Truman Doctrine he characterized the
world as being divided into good (the United States) and
evil (the Soviet Union). He said the Soviets relied on terror
and oppression, and he said it was the policy of the United

States to help other countries to stop the Soviets.[12] The Russians now clamped down on eastern Europe to protect themselves. The Cold War had begun due to the hostile and uncompromising policies adopted by the Truman Administration.

Footnotes - All are direct quotes from the sources cited.

[1] Winston Churchill, *Triumph and Tragedy* (1953), p. 227.

Meeting in Moscow, October 9, 1944:

While this was being translated I wrote out on a half-sheet of paper:

Rumania	
Russia	90%
The others	10%
Greece	
Great Britain (in accord with U. S. A.)	90%
Russia	10%
Yugoslavia	50-50%
Bulgaria	50-50%
Russia	75%
The others	25%

I pushed this across to Stalin, who had by then heard the translation. There was a slight pause. Then he took his blue pencil and made a large tick upon it, and passed it back to us. It was all settled in no more time than it takes to set down.

[2] Briefing Book enclosed in a letter, January 24, 1945, *Foreign Relations Papers of the United States 1945, Conferences at Malta and Yalta* (hereafter *Yalta Papers*), pp. 104-5:

AMERICAN POLICY TOWARD SPHERES OF INFLUENCE

—Mr. Churchill suggested to the President (Roosevelt) that the arrangement (made between Churchill and Stalin on spheres of influence) be given a three-month's trial, subject then to review by the three Governments, to which the President's assent was given.

[3] Winston Churchill, *Triumph and Tragedy, p. 293:*

Stalin, however, adhered strictly and faithfully to our agreement of October, and during all the long weeks of fighting the Communists in the streets of Athens (Greece), not one word of reproach (criticism) came from *Pravda* or *Isvestia* (Soviet newspapers).

[4] *Foreign Relations Papers of the United States* (hereafter *Foreign Relations*), 1945, Vol. II, p. 731:

Mr. Molotov (Soviet Foreign Minister): . . . He (Molotov) read a press report taken from the *New York Times* concerning the orderly fashion in which the elections in Bulgaria had taken place. He said no one could deny the fact that there was wider participation in these elections than in any other in the history of Bulgaria.

CO-3 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN A

[5]Zbigniew Brzezinski (Historian, political scientist), *The Soviet Bloc*, (1960), p. 7:

> To the peasants (of Eastern Europe) prospect of land reform held out a vision of the fulfillment of their most cherished dream, and one much too long denied.
>
> To most people in war-devastated Eastern Europe, rapid economic reconstruction was the most vital issue, even more so than politics. And to a majority of them, state planning (i.e. Communism) appeared necessary and logical.

Brzezinski, *The Soviet Bloc*, p. 19:

> The rapid growth of its membership soon made the Communist Party the leading party (in Czechoslovakia). It justified its claim to this distinction by polling 38 percent of the vote in the free elections held in April, 1946.

Martin Herz (Historian), *Beginnings of the Cold War* (1966), pp. 135-6:

> Suprisingly free elections took place in Hungary under Soviet occupation in November, 1945, in which the Smallholders (a conservative non-communist party) obtained a smashing majority.

[6]Winston Churchill, *The Hinge of Fate* (1950), p. 327:

> Churchill to President Roosevelt, April 23, 1942:
>
> The principles of the Atlantic Charter ought not to be construed so as to deny Russia the frontiers she occupied when Germany attacked her (which included the part of Poland that Russia was claiming). This was the basis on which Russia acceded (agreed) to the Charter . . . .

[7]Secretary of State Cordell Hull, *Memoirs*, Vol. II, p. 1316:

> Secretary Hull is describing a memorandum sent to him from the Polish Ambassador to the United States. The portion quoted is from the memorandum itself:
>
> The Polish ambassador threatened that, if Soviet troops entered Polish territory without previous resumption of Polish-Soviet relations, the Polish Government would "undertake political action against this violation of Polish sovereignty."

[8]*Foreign Relations*, 1945, Vol. V, pp. 353-54.

> The United States Ambassador in the Soviet Union (Averell Harriman) to the Secretary of State, Moscow, June 21, 1945 - Midnight:
>
> Thus there will be six new Ministries out of a total of twenty . . . . The fundamental basis of the reorganized government is that the Workers Party (Lublin), the Peasant Party (London) and the Socialist Party (Lublin) shall each have six portfolios and two are to be held by other democratic parties.

Herbert Feis (a historian), *Churchill, Roosevelt, Stalin—The War They Waged and the Peace They Sought*, (1957), p. 575. The primary source was not published in 1957–Feis had access to official United States sources, and quoted from the original document:

Message to Churchill from Roosevelt:

> If we attempt to evade the fact that we placed, as clearly shown by the (Yalta) agreement, somewhat more emphasis on the Lublin Poles than on the other two groups from which the Government is to be drawn, we expose ourselves to the charge that we are attempting to go back on the Crimea (Yalta) decision.

CO-3 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN A

[9] *Foreign Relations*, 1943. Vol. III, *The Tehran Conference*, pp. 594-5:

> Roosevelt - Stalin Meeting, December 1, 1943, 3:20 p.m. Roosevelt's Quarters, Soviet Embassy (President Roosevelt is speaking to Marshal Stalin) :
>
> He (President Roosevelt) added that there were in the United States from six to seven million Americans of Polish extraction, and as a practical man, he did not wish to lose their vote.
>
> The President went on to say that there were a number of persons of Lithuanian, Latvian, and Estonian origin, in that order, in the United States.
>
> The President (said) it would be helpful for him personally if some public declaration in regard to the future elections to which the Marshal had referred, could be made.

[10] Quoted in Martin Herz, *Beginnings*, pp. ix-x.

> DECLARATION ON LIBERATED EUROPE, FEBRUARY 11, 1945:
>
> To foster the conditions in which the liberated peoples may exercise these rights (for self-government) the three governments will jointly assist the people . . .
>
> (c) to form interim governmental authorities broadly representative of all democratic elements in the population and pledged to the earliest possible establishment through free elections of governments responsive to the will of the people; and (d) to facilitate where necessary the holding of such elections. . . .
>
> When, in the opinion of the three governments, conditions in any European liberated state or any former Axis satellite state in Europe make such action necessary, they will immediately consult together on the measures necessary to discharge the joint responsibilities set forth in this declaration . . .
>
> Signed at Yalta by Prime Minister Churchill,
> President Roosevelt, and Premier Stalin.

[11] *Stalin Correspondence* (a collection of writings to and from Marshal Stalin during World War II, published by the Soviet Government), (1951), Vol. II, pp. 218-219.

Note from Truman to Stalin:

> The United States Government cannot be a party to any method of consultation with Polish leaders which would not result in the establishment of a new Provisional Government of National Unity genuinely representative of the democratic elements of the Polish people.

Foreign Relations, 1945, Vol. V, p. 253: Truman speaking:

> Our agreements with the Soviet Union so far . . . (have) been a one way street. . . . If the Russians do not wish to join us, they could go to hell.

[12] Truman Doctrine, Speech before Congress, March 12, 1947,

> Quoted in John Lewis Gaddis, *The United States and the Origins of the Cold War*, p. 351:
>
> At the present moment in world history nearly every nation must choose between alternative ways of life. The choice is too often not a free one.
>
> One way of life is based upon the will of the majority, and is distinguished by free institutions, representative government, free elections, guarantees of individual liberty, freedom of speech and religion, and freedom from political oppression.

CO-3 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN A

The second way of life is based upon the will of a minority forcibly imposed upon the majority. It relies upon terror and oppression, a controlled press and radio, fixed elections, and the suppression of personal freedoms.

I believe that it must be the policy of the United States to support free people who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or by outside pressures.

CO-3 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN B

The Soviet control over eastern Europe after World War II was a major cause of the Cold War. Many of the disputes between the United States and the U.S.S.R. arose because of Soviet domination of this area. Amazingly, however, the revisionist historians (such as Historian A) make excuses for the Soviet takeover and blame the resulting problems instead on the United States! The Russians, so the
1 argument goes, had legitimate reasons for occupying eastern Europe — they wanted a buffer to future German attacks; they felt that the United States and Britain had spheres of influence of their own, so the U.S.S.R. was entitled to its sphere in eastern Europe; and they felt that their sphere in eastern Europe had been agreed to by the United States and Britain. This view is a serious distortion of the truth.

While the Russians may have been concerned about future German attacks across eastern Europe, this was not an immediate worry since Germany was so weak after
2 World War II. As will be shown, the Soviets gave this reason as an excuse to cover for the real reason for their takeover. The Russians actually took eastern Europe to spread Communism.

The Soviets justified their control over eastern Europe on the basis of the concept of spheres of influence. They argued that the western Allies (Britain and America) had agreed that eastern Europe was in the Soviet sphere. The argument is based upon an agreement between Churchill and Stalin in 1944 in which Britain was to have controlling interest in Greece, Russia was to have controlling interest in Rumania and Bulgaria, and the two countries were to have equal say in Yugoslavia and Hungary. In reality, however, Churchill made it clear that he meant
3 "controlling interest" to apply only to wartime occupation and not to any post-war sphere of influence.[1] Moreover, the United States never consented to this agreement on a permanent basis. American leaders, taking a lesson from history, were consistently opposed to anything remotely close to sphere-of-influence arrangements made in secret.[2] They noticed what had happened when the European Allies made secret deals (in which the powers divided up territory among themselves) during World War I. When the

arrangements were discovered and publicized, the prestige of the Allies had plummetted.

Thus, neither the British nor the Americans gave their consent to a Russian sphere of influence in eastern Europe after World War II. The fact that Russia also included Czechoslovakia and Poland in its area of domination, despite the fact that those two countries were not included
4 in the Churchill-Stalin deal, leads one to the obvious conclusion that Russia would have taken eastern Europe even if no deal had taken place. In fact, given Soviet motives, it is certain that Russia would have taken over eastern Europe no matter what the United States or Britain did anywhere — Greece, Italy, Belgium, Latin America, Japan or anywhere else.[3]

What is relevant to the Soviet takeover of eastern Europe is the Soviet signature, at the Yalta Conference, to the Declaration of Liberated Europe. In it the Soviets promised
5 to establish representative governments based on free elections in the areas they liberated from the Nazis.[4] The fact that they did not carry out this promise is the most important issue regarding eastern Europe and puts the blame squarely with the U.S.S.R.[5]

The fate of Poland is one of the most tragic of the countries in eastern Europe after World War II. The
6 developments in Poland symbolized the overall harsh Russian measures in eastern Europe.

The Polish people as well as the Polish government-in-exile in London feared the consequences of the advance of the Russian army as the Germans retreated in 1944 and 1945. The cynical Nazi-Soviet Pact of 1939, in which Poland was divided between Germany and Russia; the
7 Russian murder of 15,000 Polish officers in the Katyn Woods;[6] and the Russian refusal to help the Polish undergound in Warsaw as it was being wiped out by the Germans[7] all showed the Poles that they had little reason to trust and much reason to fear Russia.

As Russia "liberated" Poland it became more and more obvious that the worst Polish fears would come true — Polish freedom was to be snuffed out. First, the Russians demanded that part of Poland be given to the U.S.S.R. This

was in direct violation of the right of self-determination, as
set forth in the Atlantic Charter. The Russians, however,
cared little for the rights of other countries. They next
installed their own handpicked Communist government
into Poland. This puppet government was called the
Lublin Poles, and its leaders were trained in the town of
8 Lublin in the U.S.S.R.[8] The United States protested at the
Yalta Conference against rule by the Lublin Poles alone,
and as a result the Soviets promised to reorganize the Lublin
Government on a broader democratic basis to include the
London (pro-democracy) Poles, and they promised to hold
free elections.[9] The free elections were never held and the
Lublin Poles continued to rule the country, converting it
into a Communist nation.[10] Russia thought little of
Poland's right to self-determination.

The Russians extinguished rights in a similar harsh
fashion in all the eastern European countries.[11] The Soviet
Union exercised totalitarian (total) control over the area
(for example they did not allow free speech) to the same
extent that Hitler's Germany had controlled the countries it
conquered. It is this type of domination which makes
Russia's "sphere of influence" so different from the spheres
9 of influence of other powers. It is entirely true that Britain
has more say about actions and policies in the countries in
the British Empire than do other powers, and that the
United States has more say about what goes on in Latin
America than do other powers. The United States and
Britain, however, do not dominate the countries in their
respective spheres in the same way that Russia dominates
the countries in her sphere. It is one thing for a country to
be dominant in a smaller country's economy; it is quite
another matter to take away all rights and freedoms in that
smaller country.

The reaction of the United States to Russian expansion
into and domination of eastern Europe was entirely to be
expected. The United States could not sit idly by while
people had their freedom taken away. Thousands of
Americans had died in World War II to preserve the
freedom of countries threatened by aggressor nations. How
10 could the United States now allow Soviet aggression in
eastern Europe? American leaders realized that to

"appease" a dictator (as Neville Chamberlain had done with Hitler at Munich when he allowed Hitler to take over part of Czechoslovakia in the hope that Hitler would demand no more territory) was to encourage further aggression.[12] If the United States conceded eastern Europe to Soviet control, then Stalin would soon be making attempts to control western Europe.[13] The peoples of both eastern and western Europe deserved the right to be left to choose their own leaders and their own types of government without interference from Communist Russia. In standing up for the rights of those people, the United States chose the only morally right course.

Footnotes - All are direct quotes from the sources cited.

[1] For the text of the agreement see Footnote 1 for Historian A.

Churchill, Triumph and Tragedy, October 12, 1944, pp. 233-34:

> The system of percentages (made in the meeting with Stalin) is not intended to prescribe the numbers sitting on commissions for the different Balkan countries, but rather to express the interest and sentiment with which the British and Soviet Governments approach the problems of these countries, and so that they might reveal their minds to each other in some way that could be comprehended. It is not intended to be more than a guide, and of course in no way commits the United States, nor does it attempt to set up a rigid system of spheres of interest. It may however help the United States to see how their two principal Allies feel about these regions when the picture is presented as a whole.

[2] Briefing Book enclosed in a letter, January 24, 1945, *Yalta Papers*, pp. 104-5:

> American note sent to the Soviets and British about the October 9, 1944 agreement on percentages in Eastern Europe:
>
> Our assent to the trial period of three months was given in consideration of the present war strategy. Except for this overriding consideration, this Government would wish to make known its apprehension lest the proposed agreement might, by the natural tendency of such arrangements, lead to the division in fact of the Balkan region into spheres of influence.

[3] *Foreign Relations*, 1945, Volume V, pp. 232-233.

(Conversation among the President, the Secretary of State, and others):

April 20, 1945

At the President's request, (American) Ambassador (to the Soviet Union, Averrell) Harriman then made a brief report on his opinion of the present problems facing the United States in relation to the Soviet Union. He said that he thought the Soviet Union had two policies which they thought they could successfully pursue at the same time—one, the policy of cooperation with the United States and Great Britain, and the other, the extension of Soviet control over neighboring states through unilateral action. He said that he thought our generosity and desire to cooperate was being misinterpreted in Moscow by certain elements around Stalin as an indication that the Soviet Government could do anything that it wished without having trouble with the United States.

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CO-3 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN B

Ambassador Harriman said that in effect what we were faced with was a "barbarian invasion of Europe", that Soviet control over any foreign country did not mean merely influence on their foreign relations, but the extension of the Soviet system with secret police, extinction of freedom of speech, etc., and that we had to decide what should be our attitude in the face of these unpleasant facts.

[4]For the text of the Declaration see footnote 10 for Historian A.

[5]James F. Byrnes, *Speaking Frankly* (1947), p.52.

(The Soviet Ambassador to Rumania, Mr. Vyshinski, is arguing with the King of Rumania about appointing a new leader in the country.)

Shortly afterward Mr. Vyshinski sent word to the King that the Communist leader, Petru Groza, was the choice of the Soviet Government.

Mr. Vyshinski was quoted as saying that unless the King accepted the Groza government by the afternoon of the following day, he (Vyshinski) would not be responsible for the continuance of Rumania as an independent state.

Truman Briefing Book for the Conference at Potsdam of July, 1945, *Potsdam Papers*, Vol. I, pp. 258-59:

The Russians have rejected British and American proposals that discussions should take place regarding the political situation Rumania and elections in Bulgaria. These actions are not in accordance with the Crimea(Yalta) Declaration on Liberated Europe whereby the Big Three were to concert their policies in assisting the liberated peoples to solve their pressing political and economic problems by democratic means. Eastern Europe is, in fact, a Soviet sphere of influence.

[6]Martin Herz, (Historian), *Beginings of the Cold War*, (1966), p. 45:

According to information available to the London Polish government, Lavrenty Beria, the head of the Soviet secret police, had declared to some Polish representatives as early as the spring of 1940 that in regard to the missing (Polish) officers, "a great mistake had been made."

. . .On April 13, 1943 the German radio announced that on the basis of information furnished by the local population, the German authorities had found in the Forest of Katyn near Smolensk "the spot where in secret mass executions, the Bolsheviks (Russians) murdered 10,000 Polish officers."

[7]The Polish resistance fighters rose up in rebellion in Warsaw against the Germans as the Soviet Army approached the city. But the Russian army stopped while the Germans wiped out the Polish resistance.

Herz, *Beginnings*, p. 57:

The Polish underground in Warsaw was soon opposed by five picked German divisions and it was clear that the fate of the uprising depended on the speed of the Russian advance into the city. The Russian troops, however, arraigned themselves on the eastern bank of the Vistula to the north and south of Warsaw and marked time.

[8]Truman, *Year of Decisions*, p. 36:

The tragic fact was that, though we were allies of Russia, we had not been permitted to send our observers into Poland. Russia was in full military occupation of the country at the time and had given her full support to the so-called Lublin government – a puppet regime of Russia's own making.

[9]Quoted in Herz, *Beginnings*, p. x.

DECLARATION ON POLAND, FEBRUARY 11, 1945:

A new situation has been created in Poland as a result of her complete liberation by the Red Army. This called for the establishment of a Polish Provisional Government which can be more broadly based than was possible before the recent liberation of western Poland. The Provisional Government which is now functioning in Poland should therefore be reorganized on a broader democratic basis with the inclusion of

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democratic leaders from Poland itself and from Poles abroad. This new Government should then be called the Polish Provisional Goernment of National Unity. . .

This Polish Provisional Government of National Unity shall be pledged to the holding of free and unfettered elections as soon as possible on the basis of universal suffrage and secret ballot. In these elections all democratic and anti-Nazi parties shall have the right to take part and to put forward candidates. . . .

Signed at Yalta by Prime Minister Churchill,
President Roosevelt, and Marshal Stalin

---

[10] *Stalin Correspondence*, Vol. II, pp. 202-203.

Note to Stalin from Roosevelt, April, 1945:

While it is true that the Lublin Government is to be reorganized and its members play a prominent role, it is to be done in such a fashion as to bring into being a new government. This point is clearly brought out in several places in the text of the Agreement. I must make it quite plain to you that any such solution which would result in a thinly disguised continuance of the present Warsaw regime (the Lublin Government) would be unacceptable and would cause the people of the United States to regard the Yalta agreements as having failed.

[11] *Foreign Relations: Potsdam*, 1945, Vol. I, pp. 267-273.

Memorandum to the President, June 27, 1945. What follows is an enclosure in the memorandum. It is an intensive study by the American Special Assistant to the Director of European Affairs on Communism in Europe. The study was completed on June 2, 1945:

The generally belligerent treatment of democratic forces by communist elements in all Eastern European countries is well-known in spite of the strict news censorship imposed in those areas by the Russians and their satellites. Professing to applaud democratic practices, those Communists in power in Eastern Europe have applied terror, intimidation, mass deportation and murder under the guise of necessary purges, all of which has proved shocking to our concept of democracy and free speech. It is plain that democracy to a Communist has not the same connotation it has to an occidental democrat.

[12] See, for example, the opinion of Ambassador Harriman in footnote 3.

[13] Study of Communism in Europe by the Speccial Assistant to the Director of European Affairs (see footnote 11 for the complete citation):

Within the past three months the communist parties of France and Italy have openly advocated a return to fundamental Marxist-Leninist-Stalinist tactics. They declare that the time has come for a more radical solution of the economic and political conditions confronting those countries. The emphasis is again on the class character of the problem with the recommended solution lying in the expropriation of means of production (take over of factories by the workers) and attacks on the capitalist class generally.

CO-4 COLD WAR

A. "(I) President Kennedy overreacted during the Cuban Missile Crisis and brought the world to the edge of nuclear war. (II) And for what? (III) The Soviet missiles in Cuba were no more of a threat to the United States than American missiles in Turkey were to Russia."

____ 1. What is the conclusion?

A. I
B. II
C. III
D. Kennedy was wrong to take such a strong stand in the Cuban Missile Crisis.

____ 2. What type of reasoning is primarily used in sentence III?

A. Comparison
B. Sample
C. Cause and Effect
D. Proof by Evidence
E. Debating

3. Evaluate the reasoning in sentence III:

B. "(I) President Kennedy's decision to blockade Cuba in the 1962 Missile Crisis was brilliant. (II) On the one hand, he avoided risking nuclear war by not choosing the dangerous option of bombing the missile sites. (III) On the other hand, he did not back down to the Soviet threat, and thereby showed the Russians that they couldn't push us around."

____ 4. What is the conclusion?

A. I
B. II
C. III
D. The Russians caused the problem in the Cuban Missile Crisis.

____ 5. What is a word which makes a value judgment?

A. Decision
B. Nuclear
C. Dangerous
D. Soviet

____ 6. What is a possible fallacy in this argument?

A. Correlation as Cause (p. 18)
B. Appeal to the Gold Mean (p.19)
C. Stereotyping (p. 16)
D. Straw Man (p. 21)
E. Weak Analogy (p. 16)

7. What is one thing you would want to know or one question you would ask in order to better judge these two viewpoints?

CO-5 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN A

1 The Vietnam War is a chapter of American history which many Americans would like to forget. The tragedy is that American involvement could have been avoided from the beginning. But American leaders, driven by fear of Communist expansion, committed ever increasing American men and resources to a war which really was not in the country's national interest.

2 It is important to remember that the Vietnam War was basically a struggle for independence. The Vietminh (Vietnamese who fought for independence) fought the Japanese, the French, and then the United States, to achieve nationhood. American leaders even supported theVietminh struggle at first. During World War II the Vietminh and the American military worked together against the Japanese.[1] After World War II the French moved back into Vietnam to retake control of their former colony. A war broke out between the Vietminh and the French. American leaders, remembering our own struggle for independence against the British, refused to aid the French.

3 However, by 1950 America switched away from this sensible policy. The "fall" of China to Communism, the Korean War, and the anti-Communist charges by Senator Joseph McCarthy made American leaders paranoid of Communists.[2] The French argument that the Vietminh were Communists was now more convincing. By 1954 America was supplying 80 percent of the cost of the War for the French.[3]

4 The War went badly for the French, nevertheless. They were defeated in the major battle of Dien Bien Phu in May, 1954. They soon negotiated a peace settlement at Geneva with the Vietminh. In the Geneva Peace Conference the country was ***temporarily*** divided. The French forces were to withdraw south of the 17th parallel and the Vietminh were to withdraw north of the line. The agreement further stated that there would be an election within two years to reunify the country.[4] Everyone agreed that the leader of the independence movement, Ho Chi Minh, would win that election.[5] He was the symbol of Vietnamese independence, just as George Washington represented American independence from England.

CO-5 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN A

At this point the United States could have stayed out of
the situation and Vietnam would have become an
5 independent Communist nation under Ho Chi Minh in
1956. But the United States decided to intervene to stop the
Vietminh.

First the United States made a military alliance called
SEATO. According to the Geneva Conference neither part
of Vietnam could be part of an alliance. So the United
States had "the free territory under the jurisdiction of
Vietnam" added as a territory to be defended by the
6 alliance.[6] The regroupment zone in the southern part of
Vietnam, which was not a country, and which did not
particpate in the SEATO talks, was made an honorary
member of a military alliance!

Second, the United States gave its backing to Ngo Dinh
Diem, to build him up as leader of a separate South
Vietnamese government. Diem, who had been living in
New Jersey up to 1954,[7] was viewed favorably by the United
7 States since he also opposed the elections scheduled for
1956. In 1955 Diem, backed by American aid and in clear
violation of the Geneva Agreement declared that South
Vietnam was a country and stated that the nationwide
elections would not be held.

Diem was an oppressive ruler who created problems for
himself by his foolish policies. First he said that anyone
who was or had been a Communist or had associated with
Communists could be thrown into jail. The problem was
8 that anyone who had opposed French rule had associated
with Communists in the Vietminh. Any freedom lover
could now be thrown into jail! South Vietnam was a police
state.[8]

Second, Diem started a land reform program which
"reduced" rents. The problem with this was that the
peasants in Vietminh-controlled areas now owned their
9 land; the landlords had fled to the cities. The land reform
program actually put many landlords back into control.[9]
The South Vietnamese people hated these two policies.

Needless to say, war again broke out, this time between the Vietcong (South Vietnamese who fought for

independence) and Diem's authoritarian government. In
1960 the North Vietnamese began sending large amounts of
10 aid to the Vietcong in the struggle for Vietnamese
independence. The United States also stepped up its
military aid to the South Vietnamese Government. And
President Kennedy began sending American "advisors" to
help the South Vietnamese military.

By 1964 the United States could still have disengaged
from Vietnam. The number of troops there was small
(about 16,000) and few Americans had been killed. But
President Johnson could not stand to see Vietnam become
Communist. In the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution (1964)
Congress agreed to let the president use "whatever means
necessary" to stop Communist aggression in Vietnam.
11 American troops could now fight. In 1965 large numbers of
American troops were committed to the War. By 1968 over
500,000 American troops were in Vietnam. President
Johnson also increased the amount of bombing. By the end
of the War the United States had dropped over 6 million
tons of bombs on Indochina (Vietnam, Laos, and
Cambodia) over 4 million of which fell on South
Vietnam.[10] This is three times as much tonnage as was
dropped by the United States in all of World War II.

What did all these troops and bombings accomplish?
Basically, it led to the destruction of Vietnamese society.
Large numbers of innocent civilians were killed by
American soldiers.[11] The My Lai Massacre was unusual
because of the large number of civilians killed, but the
killing of civilians by American soldiers was not
unusual. American generals emphasized number of enemy
killed (called body count), rather than capture of territory.
12 Officers were under pressure to get a high body count. This
led to such expressions as, "If he's Vietnamese and he's
dead, he's Vietcong," and to the counting of bodies on the
battlefield several times by different American troops (for
example, three dead bodies would lead to a count of three
dead by the infantry, three by the artillery, and three by the
Air Force).

Vietnamese civilians were also killed by bombing. There is no possible way from an airplane to separate civilians

13 from guerrillas (which the Vietcong were), so large numbers of civilians had to be killed by the bombing. Each of the civilians killed had relatives who might then join the Vietcong out of hatred for the Americans.

14 American firepower destroyed Vietnamese society and basically guaranteed we would lose the War. American generals did what they thought was best—use American weapons to defeat the enemy militarily. The problem was that the Vietnam War was a struggle for the hearts and minds of the Vietnamese peasants. You can't win people over to your side by destroying their villages and killing their relatives. Our firepower continually created more enemies.

15 Another way the United States could have disentangled from Vietnam was through a negotiated settlement among the Vietcong, the South Vietnamese Government, and the Buddhists. The Americans told the South Vietnamese not to negotiate.[12]

16 No wonder American soldiers didn't know what they were fighting for. There was no good reason why we were fighting – we never should have become involved in Vietnam from the beginning. Having continually lied to the American people about the War, the Johnson Administration was embarrassed bythe unusual strength of the Vietcong in the Tet Offensive in 1968.[13] The Administration had said that the enemy was too weak to attack.American citizens wondered if government statements were truthful, and began to protest in large numbers against the War The continuous protests gradually brought about an end to the insanity of American involvement in the War by 1973.

17 The United States consciously became involved in a war in which it had no business. It tried to fight the political war by military firepower. But American firepower only [illegible] more Vietnamese join the guerrilla side. We could not win as long as most South Vietnamese supported the Vietcong. In the end the American people forced the end of the useless killing of this needless War.

CO-5 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN A

Historian A - Footnotes (All are quotes from the sources given)

[1] Bernard Fall, (Historian), *The Two Viet Nams* (1964) pp. 100-101.

[2] Statement by President Truman linking aid to Vietnam with United States intervention in the Korean War. *Department of State Bulletin*, July 3, 1950, p. 5.

State Department Policy Statement on Indochina, September 27, 1948:

> We have not urged the French to negotiate with Ho Chi Minh, even though he probably is supported by a considerable majority of the Vietnamese people, because of his record as a Communist. . . .

[3] *New York Times*, April 7, 1954.

[4] Geneva Agreements, 1954, paragraph 7.

[5] CIA National Intelligence Estimate, August 3, 1954:

> If the scheduled national elections are held in July 1956, and if the Viet Minh does not prejudice its political prospects, the Viet Minh will almost certainly win.

Dwight David Eisenhower, *Mandate for Change* (1963), p. 372:

> I have never talked or corresponded with a person knowledgeable in Indochinese affairs who did not agree that had elections been held as of the time of the fighting, possibly 80 percent of the population would have voted for the Communist Ho Chi Minh . . . .

[6] Southeast Asia Collective Defense Treaty, *Southeast Asia Treaty Organization*, Department of State Publication 6305 (1956). See especially "Protocol to the Southeast Asia Collective Defense Treaty."

[7] George Kahin and John Lewis, (Historians) *The United States in Vietnam*, (1976), p. 66.

[8] P. J. Honey, "The Problem of Democracy in Vietnam," *The World Today*, Vol 16, No.2, February 1960, p. 73. On the basis of talks with former inmates of Diem's prison camps he stated:

> The majority of detainees are neither Communist nor pro-Communist.

William Henderson, "South Viet Nam Finds Itself," *Foreign Affairs*, Vol. 35, No. 2, January 1957, pp. 285-288:

> South Viet Nam is today a quasi-police state characterized by arbitrary arrests and imprisonment. . . .

[9] John D. Montgomery, *The Politics of Foreign Aid* (1962), p. 124:

> . . . The Vietnamese government, not wishing to disturb the strong landowning classes, resisted the proposed transfers of land (to the peasants) and the sharper rent controls (lower than 25 percent).

[10] Raphael Littauer and Norman Uphoff, editors, *The Air War in Indochina*, (1972), Graph. 11, Figure 1-1 "Annual Tonnage of Aerial Munitions, 1965-1971."

[11] U. S. Senate, *U. S. Policy with Respect to Mainland China*, 89th Congress, 2nd Session (1966), p. 349. Also Kahin and Lewis, *The United States in Vietnam*, p. 239; the ratio of civilian to Vietcong casualties (was) reported as high as 2 to 1. . . .

[12] *New York Times*, November 10, 1964:

> . . . a negotiated settlement and neutralization of Vietnam are not to be ruled out.

President Johnson's New Year's message to the government of South Vietnam, *New York Times*, January 1 and 2, 1964:

> Neutralization of South Vietnam would only be another name for a Communist take-over.

[13] *New York Times*, December 27, 1967 and February 13, 1968.

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CO-5 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN B

1 The Vietnam War was a frustrating conflict for the United States. American soldiers won every battle yet the Communists won the War. This frustration has led to a number of misinterpretations about this tragic event.

2 Some historians blame the United States for almost every evil that took place during the War. The United States, they argue, had no legitimate reason for getting involved in the conflict from the beginning. Once we were involved we incorrectly fought the War militarily and destroyed Vietnamese society with our bombing and other firepower. This viewpoint is wrong on every count.

3 It is important to recognize that the United States had legitimate national interests in Vietnam. Our enemies were Communists (Ho Chi Minh had been a long-time member of the international Communist movement), and the Korean War showed that Communists were not afraid to try to take over other nations by force. Our aid to the French would help contain Communism.

4 After the French were defeated at Dien Bien Phu in 1954 they negotiated the Geneva Agreement with the Vietminh Communists. Some historians argue that the Vietminh were cheated out of a legitimate victory by American and South Vietnamese violations of the Geneva Agreement. But the Agreement itself was not signed and not even adopted by a formal vote. The nationwide election scheduled for 1956, which Ho Chi Minh would supposedly have won by a landslide, was not taken seriously by any country at the Conference.[1] Why would the Agreement allow people to escape from one zone (the North) to the other (the South) when the two zones would be reunified in 700 days? South Vietnam said it would not agree to the elections if the elections jeopardized its independence.[2] Moreover, Communists never hold free elections, so the whole idea was a sham. As John F. Kennedy stated in 1956:

> Neither the United States nor Free Vietnam was a party to that agreement (on elections) — and neither the United States nor Free Vietnam is ever going to be a party to an election obviously stacked and subverted in advance, urged on us by

> those (the Communists) who have already broken their own pledges under the agreement they now seek to enforce.[3]

5 So Ngo Dinh Diem, South Vietnam's new leader, was indeed justified in declaring South Vietnam a separate nation and in saying that he would not allow the 1956 election to be held in South Vietnam. The majority of the people in South Vietnam wanted independence from North Vietnam.

6 When the elections were not held North Vietnam now began to use force to take over South Vietnam. Some people have argued that the War in South Vietnam was fought by the Vietcong (or National Liberation Front) which was independent of Vietnam. In fact, however, North Vietnam controlled the War in South Vietnam from the start. The North Vietnamese created the NLF as a cover for their own role in the War, to prevent the charge that they had invaded South Vietnam. North Vietnamese defectors found it humorous that Americans believed Communist propaganda.[4]

7 With the introduction in 1965 of large numbers of American troops the tide turned in favor of the South Vietnamese Government. But the effectiveness of American soldiers on the battlefield was undermined by the strategy, or rather lack of strategy, by American civilian leaders. For what several presidents, but especially President Johnson, did was fail to resolve to fight to win the War. War is a serious matter. It requires the undivided attention of the president, the Congress, and the citizenry. The president, in particular, has the duty to define the aims of the war, fix a strategy for success, and clarify to the American people why they and their sons should be willing to sacrifice. President Johnson never confronted the American people with the reality of this choice.[5]

8 Johnson was concerned about domestic politics, especially his Great Society program. Consequently, he sent in enough troops to avoid losing the War but not enough to win it. The Joint Chiefs of Staff protested but Johnson wasn't listening. He had put civilian strategists in

charge of the War. Their psychological strategy was to "calibrate" American bombing–increase it a little to get the North Vietnamese to negotiate. The gradual increases in American bombing missions reduced their effectiveness by allowing the North Vietnamese to adjust gradually.

Despite these limitations on the American military, there were several points at which the United States and South Vietnam were close to winning the war. In 1968 the Vietcong tried an all-out attack in the Tet Offensive. They were thoroughly defeated and effectively eliminated as a fighting force.[6] Without the Vietcong, the guerrilla war withered. Thus, the North Vietnamese Army had to fight large-scale battles against the better-armed Americans and South Vietnamese. The advantage on the battlefield swung 9 clearly to the United States' side. However, many Americans at home withdrew their support for the War after the Tet Offensive. No one had told them why they were making such sacrifices in Vietnam. With no overall goals or strategy for the War, Americans could not see why we should keep fighting. The American people forced Johnson to start withdrawing troops precisely when our military leaders were saying that more troops and an offensive strategy would bring us victory.

Again in 1972 the Communists made a desperate gamble when they invaded South Vietnam in the Easter Offensive. They were thrown back by the South Vietnamese Army (most American troops were out of Vietnam by 1972) with losses of over 130,000 men.[7] So the North Vietnamese switched strategy. They decided to win at the negotiating table what they had failed to win on the battlefield. The Nixon Administration could have decided on a tough policy in order to achieve victory. However, by this time, 10 seven years after the introduction of large numbers of American troops, support for the War had vanished. Our leaders had to negotiate. Henry Kissinger won the Nobel Peace Prize for negotiating the 1973 Paris Peace Agreement, but it was a sellout of South Vietnam. The North Vietnamese were allowed to keep their army in South Vietnam while the United States forces were withdrawn. Meanwhile, the Communists agreed to return American prisoners of war (POWs).[8] The Communists used the breather provided by the agreement to build up their army for the final attack in 1975 in which they took over South Vietnam.

11 It is curious that American reporters criticized the American military for committing atrocities in Vietnam while dismissing the barbarity of the Communists. There should be no mistaking the nature of warfare—it is brutal. The American soldiers were heavily armed and made lavish use of their firepower. Occasionally, some soldiers committed crimes, but they were tried in military courts. American bombing was extremely heavy. However, most of the tonnage was dropped in the lightly populated jungle, so few civilians were killed.

12 The Communists, meanwhile, used systematic terror to control the population. From the start, the North Vietnamese Government was as totalitarian and oppressive as any government in the world. North Vietnamese people had almost no rights. People who opposed the Communists or their programs were executed. At least 50,000 (estimates go as high as 500,000) North Vietnamese died in the Communist land "reform" program alone.[9] Over 1 million people escaped from North Vietnam after 1954 to get away from Communist oppression.

13 The Vietcong also used terror and executions (several thousand per year) to intimidate the population of South Vietnam. The American media seemed to pay scant attention to the Vietcong atrocity in Dak San, where the Communists used flamethrowers to burn the residents to death. There was very little in the American press about the mass grave of 5,700 civilians killed at Hue by the Vietcong in the 1968 Tet Offensive. In captured documents the Vietcong gloated over the executions, lamenting only that they couldn't have killed more people.[10]

14 Some observers believe that the United States lost the War because we fought it militarily. The real struggle was for the allegiance of the South Vietnamese people. The more people we bombed, they argue, the more enemy guerrillas we created. This argument is refuted by the fact that South

CO-5 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN B

Vietnam was defeated by a conventional military invasion, not by a guerrilla takeover. Winning hearts and minds had less to do with victory in Vietnam than tanks and artillery.

In short, in the Vietnam War the United States was trying to protect the independence of a free people from an invasion by a determined and brutal enemy. The American military did its job admirably—winning every battle. What was missing was a decision by our civilian leaders to focus the national will and determination on the fight. We needed to make the choice as a nation on whether the sacrifice was worth it. Instead President Johnson tried to fight the war secretly, with no national debate. As time wore on Americans lost interest in what they saw as a needless meatgrinder chewing up our young men and resources. They had no clear idea of why the country was fighting. In the end our determined enemy simply outlasted us. The tradedy is not that America fought in Vietnam. Rather, the tragedy is that we fought the War without the determination to fight it to victory.

Historian B - Footnotes (All are quotes from the sources given)

[1] Guenter Lewy, (Historian) *America in Vietnam* (1978), p. 8.

[2] Summarized from a statement by the South Vietnamese delegate to the Geneva Conference. *Documents on American Foreign Relations*, Council of Foreign Relations (1955), pp. 315-316.

[3] Speech to Friends of Vietnam in Hans J. Morgenthau, (Historian) "The 1954 Geneva Conference: An Assessment," *America's Stake in Vietnam* (1956), p. 13.

[4] Jeffrey Race, *War Comes to Long An: Revolutionary Conflict in a Vietnamese Province* (1972), pp. 107 and 122. Race interviewed two Communist defectors:

> They both commented humorously that the (Communist) Party (of North Vietnam) had apparently been more successful than was expected in concealing its role (in the war in South Vietnam).

Another defector said:

> The Central Committee could hardly permit the International Control Commission to say that there was an invasion from the North, so it was necessary to have some name (the National Liberation Front). . . to clothe these forces with some political organization.

[5] Former Secretary of State Dean Rusk stated in 1976:

> We never made any effort to create a war psychology in the United States during the Vietnam affair. We didn't have military parades through cities. . . .

CO-5 COLD WAR

HISTORIAN B

[6]Conduct of the War in Vietnam. A report commissioned in 1971 by the U. S. Army Deputy Chief of Staff for Military Operations, Reference Document 1 (Summary of the document - not a direct quote):

> The number of attacks by enemy battalions or larger forces dropped from 16 per month in the first half of 1968 to less than 5 per month in the second half of 1968.

See also, Sir Robert Thompson, *Peace is Not at Hand* (1974), Chapter 5.

[7]Thompson, *Peace*, Chapter 6.

[8]Douglas Pike, "The Other Side." *The Wilson Quarterly*, Vol. VII, No. 3, Summer, 1983, p.124.

[9]Bernard Fall, *The Two Viet-Nams: A Political and Military Analysis* (1967), p. 156.

[10]Robert F. Turner. *Vietnamese Communism: Its Origins and Development* (1975), p. 251:
A captured Vietcong document stated that at Hue the Communists:

> . . . eliminated 1,892 administrative personnel, 38 policemen, 790 tyrants .

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IS-1 POST-WORLD WAR II ISSUES

A. "(I) On January 7, 1950 Senator Joseph McCarthy met three other men to discuss his reelection campaign. (II) It was at this meeting that the issue of Communism in the State Department was first suggested. (III) Only one month later, on February 9, 1950 McCarthy launched his attack on Communism. (IV) He told the Republican women at Wheeling, West Virginia, 'I have in my hand a list of 205 that were known to the Secretary of State as being members of the Communist Party.' (V) In fact, however, McCarthy had no list—he stated time and again that he read from a letter by Secretary of State Byrnes, which contained no list. (VI) McCarthy impulsively picked Communism as a campaign issue, never really researched the complex issue, and lied in his very first public statement on it."

____ 1. What is the conclusion?

A. Communism is not a real problem in our government.
B. Picking an issue to help a reelection campaign is wrong.
C. McCarthy was reckless in his attack on Communism.
D. McCarthy lied to the Republican women at Wheeling.

____ 2. There is evidence presented in sentence V. In what other sentence is evidence presented?

A. I
B. II
C. III
D. IV
E. VI

3. Evaluate the evidence presented in sentence V:

4. List two unstated assumptions made in this argument:

a.

b.

B. "(I)McCarthy's attacks on supposed Communists in the government was just plain character assassination. (II) He needlessly hurt many people's careers. (III) Eighteen people in the State Department who were accused by McCarthy were fired."

____ 5. What is a word which makes a value judgment?

A. Communists
B. Needlessly
C. Careers
D. Fired

6. What is an unstated assumption in this argument?

(What follows is a summary of some of the reasoning used in the Supreme Court Case, "Brown v. Board of Education" of 1954.)

A. **"(I) The case 'Plessy v. Ferguson' in 1896 declared that separatefacilities for blacks and whites could be equal.(II) But 'Plessy v. Ferguson' dealt with transportation, not education. (III) Testimony in this case shows that separate schools for blacks and whites are not equal. (IV) Psychological experts stated that separate schools make blacks feel inferior. (V) Separate schools are inherently unequal and thus violate the equal protection clause of the Fourteeth Amendment of the Contitution."**

____ 1. What is the conclusion?

A. I
B. II
C. III
D. IV
E. V

____ 2. What are the justices doing in sentence II?

A. Attacking the sample in sentence I.
B. Questioning the evidence in sentence I.
C. Showing that the comparison in sentence I is weak.
D. Substituting cause and effect reasoning for the debating reasoning in sentence I.

____ 3. The phrase "Testimony in this case shows . . ." indicates what type of reasoning?

A. Comparison
B. Proof by Evidence
C. Proof by Authority
D. Sample
E. Cause and Effect

____ 4. The phrase "Psychological experts testified . . ." indicates what type of reasoning?

A. Comparison
B. Cause and Effect
C. Proof by Authority
D. Debating

____ 5. The phrase "separate schools make blacks feel inferior . . ." indicates what type of reasoning?

A. Comparison
B. Cause and Effect
C. Proof by Authority
D. Proof by Evidence

B. **"(I) Professor Clemens, who says that racism by whites is not the main reason for high unemployment among blacks, is helping America's racists. (II) He is helping the people who are taking food out of the mouths of black children."**

____ 6. What is a possible fallacy?

A. Jargon (p. 10)
B. Unrepresentative Sample (p. 16)
C. Numbers (p. 19)
D. False Scenario (p. 20)
E. Appeal to Irrelevant Outcome (p. 21)

HISTORIAN A:

The main reason why blacks did poorly when they migrated to Boston was because they came from the rural South. They were unprepared for urban life, so they could not take advantage of those opportunities to move up which were available. The city life of Boston was simply too complex and too different from life in the rural South, especially considering that the early migrants came from families which had lived under slavery.

HISTORIAN B:

The main reason for the poor performance of blacks in terms of mobility is due to the prejudice of whites in Boston. Whites in Boston had more prejudice against blacks than they had against any immigrant group.

HISTORIAN C:

Blacks did worse than immigrants in moving up on the job scale mainly because they were less interested in education. Black children didn't go to school as long as whites so how could they expect to better themselves in the job market?

HISTORIAN D:

Blacks did poorly on the job market mainly because they concentrated and isolated themselves in ghettoes. Thus they had less contact with others in the city so when opportunities for better jobs opened up the employers didn't know any blacks to hire, and the blacks had no way to find out about the jobs.

HISTORIAN E:

Larger families account for why blacks did not do as well as immigrants in improving themselves in the job market. With larger families, blacks could provide neither the same education nor the same financial help for their children as they could if they had fewer children. With this handicapped start, black children could not improve themselves as much as whites.

HISTORIAN F:

The black family in Boston, as elsewhere, was disorganized and unstable. Just look at the statistics. In 1970 barely half (50.3 percent) of the black children in Boston were living with both of their parents. It has been established that a "background of living in a broken family hurts educational achievement" and with less education it is to be expected that blacks will do worse in occupational achievement.

HISTORIAN G:

Black culture is the main reason for the poor record of gains for blacks in Boston. This culture made blacks less qualified for better jobs than whites, and prevented blacks from seeing and taking advantage of job opportunities that were available to them.

IS-4 POST-WORLD WAR II ISSUES

A. "(I)President Eisenhower's conservative policies of allowing business to run without needless government interference helped our economy. (II) The evidence is conclusive on this point. (III) In the 1950's our GNP went up, unemployment was low, and our standard of living was high."

____ 1. What is the conclusion?

A. I
B. II
C. III
D. A president who helps the economy should be reelected.

____ 2. What is a word which makes a value judgment?

A. Policies
B. Business
C. Needless
D. Unemployment
E. Standard

____ 3. What is the fallacy in this argument?

A. Composition (p. 16)
B. Correlation as Cause (p. 18)
C. Irrelevant Proof (p. 18)
D. Straw Man (p. 21)

B. "(I) It's a crime for an individual to relieve himself or herself in a river. (II) Amazingly, however, it is not a crime for a corporation to relieve itself in a river."

____ 4. What is the conclusion?

A. I
B. II
C. Individuals shouldn't relieve themselves in rivers.
D. It should be a crime for corporations to relieve themselves in rivers.

____ 5. What type of reasoning is this primarily?

A. Comparison
B. Sample
C. Cause and Effect
D. Proof by Evidence
E. Debating

C. **"(I) Senator Welihan has proposed this new bill for energy conservation. (II) But Senator Welihan's state will benefit more than any other state from the bill. (III) It should be defeated."**

____ 6. What is the conclusion?

A. I
B. II
C. III
D. Another senator should suggest an energy bill.

____ 7. What is the fallacy?

A. Equivocation (p. 10)
B. Single Cause (p. 17)
C. Either-Or (p. 20)
D. Begging the Question (p. 20)
E. Attacking the Arguer (p. 21)

IS-5 POST-WORLD WAR II ISSUES

A. "(I) More women are working today (1979) than ever before, and the divorce rate has never been higher. (II) Working women are obviously a big factor in the breakup of marriages."

____ 1. What is the conclusion?

A. I
B. II
C. Women were meant to do housework only.
D. Divorce rates are too high.

____ 2. **Which two tables tend to show that the premise is correct?**

____ 3. What is the fallacy in this argument?

A. Negative Proof (p. 18)
B. Stereotyping (p. 16)
C. Correlation as Cause (p. 18)
D. Numbers (p. 19)
E. No Fallacy

4. What is needed to make this argument stronger?

B. "(I) As women have had fewer children, more women have joined the labor force. (II) Thus, smaller families have allowed women to work more."

____ 5. What is the conclusion?

A. I
B. II
C. Fewer children lead to smaller families.
D. None of the above.

6. Evaluate this argument:

C. "Though more women are involved in the labor force, they still have not achieved equality in the workplace with men."

7. Which table is related to this argument and how does it affect the argument (strengthen or weaken)?